DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 392 383 HE 029 026

AUTHOR	Zahorski, Kenneth J., Ed.; And Others
TITLE	To Improve the Academy: Resources for Student, Faculty, & Institutional Development, 1991.
INSTITUTION	Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education.
PUB DATE	91
NOTE	283p.; Published annually. Issues of this journal have been entered into ERIC out of normal sequence: see ED 325 062-063 (1989-1990), ED 344 537-540 (1985-1988), ED 366 279 (1992), HE 029 025-029 (1982, 1991, 1993-95). For this one year only, the subtitle added the word "Student" and changed "Organizational" to "Institutional."
AVAILABLE FROM	New Forum Press, Inc., P.O. Box 876, Stillwater, OK 74076 ($10).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Serials (022) -- Reports - Descriptive (141) -- Viewpoints (Opinion/Position Papers, Essays, etc.) (120)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC12 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Adult Students; Beginning Teachers; *College Faculty; Consultants; *Faculty Development; Foreign Students; *Higher Education; *Instructional Improvement; Master Teachers; Portfolios (Background Materials); Racial Differences; Sex Differences; Teacher Attitudes; Teacher Improvement; Teaching Assistants; Women Faculty
IDENTIFIERS	*Diversity (Faculty); *Professional Organizational Devel Net High Educ

ABSTRACT

This annual journal issue contains 22 papers on issues of faculty development, diversity, adult learners, and instructional improvement in higher education. Many of the papers were developed for the annual conference of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD). The papers are: (1) "What Theories Underlie the Practice of Faculty Development?" (Wilbert J. McKeachie); (2) "Faculty Vitality: 1990 and Beyond" (Joan North); (3) "Finding the Right Match: Staffing Faculty Development Centers" (G. Roger Sell and Nancy V. Chism); (4) "How Attitudes Change: A Primer for Faculty Developers" (Richard F. Lewis); (5) "University Faculty Attitudes Towards Teaching and Research" (Russell Lee and Michael Field); (6) "Selected Characteristics of New Faculty: Implications for Faculty Development" (Christine A. Stanley and Nancy V. Chism); (7) "Starting Out: Experiences of New Faculty at a Teaching University" (Virginia van der Bogert); (8) "Nine Keys to Enhancing Campus Wide Influence of Faculty Development Centers" (Martin Nemko and Ronald D. Simpson); (9) "What Every Faculty Development Professional Needs To Know about Higher Education" (Daniel R. Rice); (10) "Outside Consultants: When, Who, and How To Use Them" (Martin Nemko); (11) "The Feminization of Academia" (Deborah Du Nann Winter); (12) "Gender and Racial Differences among a Research University Faculty: Recommendations for Promoting Diversity" (Deborah Olsen); (13) "Managing Diversity Through Faculty Development" (Marie A. Wunsch and Virgie Chattergy); (14) "Instructional Development Programs for International TAs: A

Systems Analysis Approach" (Rosslyn Mynatt Smith et al.); (15) "The Place of Narrative in the Study and Practice of Adult Development" (Diane E. Morrison); (16) "Adult Students as Catalysts to Faculty Development: Effective Approaches to Predictable Opportunities (Douglas L. Robertson); (17) "The Medicine Wheel: Emotions and Connections in the Classroom" (Peter J. Frederick); (18) "Putting the Teaching Portfolio in Context" (Barbara J. Millis); (19) "Recognition from Parents: A Variation on Traditional Teaching Awards" (Delivee L. Wright); (20) "Coping with the Academic 'Tragedy of the Commons': Renovating Classrooms at Carnegie Mellon University" (Edwin Fenton); (21) "Front Line Faculty Development: Chairs Constructively Critiquing Colleagues in the Classroom" (Linda Hilsen and LeAne Rutherford); and (22) "The Professor as Active Learner: Lessons from the New Jersey Master Faculty Program" (Myrna J. Smith and Mark LaCelle-Peterson). Most papers contain references. (DB)

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A Publication of the Professional & Organizational Development Network in Higher Education
1991

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To Improve the Academy

Resources for Student, Faculty, & Institutional Development

Volume 10, 1991

To Improve the Academy

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The Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education

1991
The Professional and Organizational Development
Network in Higher Education

New Forums Press, Inc., Publisher
Stillwater, Oklahoma

FIRST PRINTING: October 1991

Foreword

With this issue, *To Improve the Academy* celebrates its tenth birthday. Published annually by the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD), *To Improve the Academy* is a collection of articles focusing on faculty, instructional, and organizational development. From its initial appearance in 1982, this publication has distinguished itself as an invaluable resource not only for faculty development professionals, but for all who believe that our students deserve the very best learning experience we can offer.

The excellent articles in this issue need no explanation; each speaks eloquently for itself. However, the reader may find the following observations about the collection as a whole of some interest. To begin with, the articles in this issue are of a highly practical nature, providing information on programs, strategies, techniques, and methodologies either easily replicable or at least readily applicable with some modification. Second, the authors deal with timely, vital topics, ranging from gender and multicultural issues to faculty wellness. Third, the reader will find great variety here—not only in terms of topics, but also in respect to auctorial perspectives, geographical and institutional representation, and philosophical approaches. Finally, this collection contains considerable fresh research.

From its very inception nearly two decades ago, POD has made manifest, through word and deed, its credo of communication, cooperation, and sharing. Indeed, this generosity of spirit emblematizes the organization and its membership. It is the first thing I noticed when I became involved in POD some ten years ago, and the quality still most often remarked upon by newcomers to the Network. True to its guiding principles, POD does not copyright the articles it publishes in *To Improve the Academy*. We invite you to reproduce and use the material in this volume. Further, we ask that you help maintain our tradition of sharing by contributing articles to future issues of *Academy*, as well as by making presentations at the POD Annual Conferences.

I gratefully acknowledge generous assistance from many sources in the preparation of this volume. Sincere thanks must be extended to my Associate

Editors—Howard Altman, Nancy Diamond, Lion Gardiner, Diane Morrison, Deborah Du Nann Winter, and Donald Wulff—who performed their editorial tasks with exemplary professionalism, industry, and good humor. Without their sound critiques, kind notes of encouragement, and sound judgment this enterprise, and its editor, might still be bombinating in the void. Further thanks are extended to: Chris Utech, whose secretarial expertise, sanguinity, and creative energies have been crucial to the project's success; Susan Kahn and Linda Hilsen, past editors who served as wise cicerones; Doug Dollar of New Forums Press, who combines professionalism with cooperation and warmth in exemplary fashion; Dr. Robert L. Horn, Dean of St. Norbert College, for his unflagging support and encouragement; the contributors to the tenth issue of *To Improve the Academy*; and my POD colleagues and friends. Like Sebastian of Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night* "I can no other answer make, but thanks, and thanks, and ever thanks, and oft."

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Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education

Mission Statement

Approved by the Core Committee on March 24, 1991
at its Washington, D.C., meeting.

The Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (P.O.D.) fosters human development in higher education through faculty, instructional, and organizational development.

P.O.D. believes that people have value, as individuals and as members of groups. The development of students is a fundamental purpose of higher education and requires for its success effective advising, teaching, leadership, and management. Central to P.O.D.'s philosophy is lifelong, holistic, personal and professional learning growth, and change for the higher education community.

The three purposes of P.O.D. are:

- To provide support and services for its members through publications, conferences, consulting, and networking.
- To offer services and resources to others interested in faculty development.
- To fulfill an advocacy role, nationally, seeking to inform and persuade educational leaders of the value of faculty, instructional, and organizational development in institutions of higher education.

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Section I

Faculty Development: Past, Present, Future

If the faculty development enterprise is to maintain its health and vigor through this decade and into the next century, its practitioners and caretakers must not only address present needs, but also prepare for the future—in part by studying the past. Tunnel vision and near-sightedness spell doom to a field whose success depends so heavily upon its ability to quickly and effectively meet the changing needs of the professoriate. Thus, as faculty development professionals we are called upon not only to serve as counselors and facilitators, but also as historians and visionaries. We must study our brief, but rich, history to avoid making the mistakes of the past, and we must wisely extrapolate from present conditions to successfully meet the challenges of the future.

The three articles comprising Section I deal with where we have been, where we are, and where we might (or should) be going. In his article, "What Theories Underlie the Practice of Faculty Development?," Wilbert J. McKeachie begins with a look at the theories forming the foundation of faculty development when it emerged as a field in the early 1960's, and ends with a peek into the future, suggesting that tomorrow's theories will probably focus on such matters as "interpersonal and social-psychological aspects of learning," discipline-specific approaches to teaching-learning, motivation issues, "human-technology combinations," and the relationship between institutional culture and the classroom.

Joan North, in her inspiring POD keynote address, "Faculty Vitality: 1990 and Beyond," states that the key to a bright future for faculty development is a holistic approach in which faculty wellness and "institutional quality of life" are stressed. Included in her message is the cautionary note

that care-giving professionals such as faculty developers must tend to their own wellness if they hope to maintain the requisite energy needed to nurture the personal and professional lives of their colleagues.

G. Roger Sell and Nancy V. Chism's "Finding the Right Match: Staffing Faculty Development Centers," closes the Section with an important reminder: the faculty development beacon will continue to shine brightly into the future only if faculty development centers are staffed with dedicated and competent professionals. Both practical and hortatory, "Finding the Right Match" provides sound advice for those administrators responsible for locating and hiring professional staff for offices of faculty and instructional development.

What Theories Underlie the Practice of Faculty Development?*

Wilbert J. McKeachie

University of Michigan

Do we really need a theory of faculty development? Both faculty developers and those outside the enterprise have asked this question from time to time over the past few years. What I should like to do in this paper is to discuss the question of whether or not a theoretical basis of faculty development is needed and then go on to the topic of what difference a theory could make. Finally, I'll discuss what theories we started with when the faculty development movement emerged in the 1960's, and what kinds of theories we might use in the 1990's.

Do We Need a Theory?

My answer to this question is "not necessarily." I think it is quite possible to do good work in faculty development without a clearly defined theoretical basis. Most people working in the area of faculty development have some repertoire of skills and ideas about teaching they can communicate and help people to develop. In my experience, beginning college teachers need some practical suggestions for their first few classes and for classroom management.

We faculty developers can do a lot of good at a very down-to-earth level. In fact, I have a general theory of faculty development that suggests that in helping faculty members the first step is at the tips, techniques, skills level rather than at any broader theoretical level. My assumption is that if we can

*Wilbert J. McKeachie presented this paper at the 15th Annual Conference of the POD Network on Sunday, November 4, 1990, Granlibakken at Lake Tahoe, California.

help faculty members get along in the classroom relatively comfortably with some positive feedback from their students, our colleagues will begin to find teaching intrinsically rewarding and may then be interested and capable of further development.

Once these initial skills have been developed, faculty members may then be interested in thinking about overall issues of educational goals, theories of instruction and learning, characteristics of students that may influence learning and instruction, the social psychology of the classroom, and the relationship of teaching to the broader institutional or cultural context. (Darling and Dewey [1990] report similar stages in the development of teaching assistants.) Art Sullivan (1985) of Memorial University in St. John's, Newfoundland suggests that these first two stages of faculty development may then be followed by a third stage in which faculty members develop an interest in carrying out research on teaching both for their own benefit and for the benefit of their disciplines (see also Cross and Angelo, 1988).

But even though I've said that theory is not necessary, I would not conclude that it is not useful and valuable. In the first place, I believe that human beings are natural theory builders. We have evolved brains that seek to understand and to find order in complexity; we are naturally curious; we try to make sense out of our experience. College and university faculty members and faculty developers have chosen their vocations because they have a highly developed desire to think about things in some systematic, reasonable way. Thus, we inevitably develop theories. The question is not so much "Should we have theory?" as "Why are theories useful?" and "What distinguishes good theories from theories that are less useful?"

Let me suggest several reasons why it is useful to have theories underlying our practice of faculty and instructional development.

1. The problems we deal with are among the most complex in human experience. The combination of teacher, student, subject matter, and the educational environment offer myriad possibilities of interactions. The human mind is limited in terms of the amount of detail it can hold at any one time. "Working memory" is generally regarded as capable of handling about seven chunks of information at any one time, and there are certainly more than seven different things going on at one time in a classroom. If we are to deal with teaching situations effectively, we need to categorize, to group, to abstract, to simplify the situation so that with a limited number of concepts we can encompass a great deal of what is involved in teaching and in teaching teachers.

2. If we are to be successful in faculty development, we need to be able

to diagnose problems and to help faculty members analyze the situations in which they are teaching. Theories give us an initial start on analysis. They may not be the ultimate answer, since individual situations may differ, but they give us an avenue through which to approach problems.

3. Theories are heuristic. One of the advantages of a theory of faculty development and of teaching and learning is that it provides a basis for thinking of alternative approaches.

So, I'm an advocate of conceptualization and theory. I advocate theory, however, with the proviso that we not become so committed to a theory that it blinds us to those aspects of problems that don't fit. Any concept or theory helps us to focus on things to the exclusion of others; there is always a danger that we'll become over-committed to a particular theory and distort the data to fit the theory we have. We need to use theories with flexibility and openmindedness. Let us be masters of the theory, not slaves to it.

What Theories Did We Start With?

The faculty development movement essentially emerged in the 1960's. Probably the first centers for faculty and instructional development (founded about 1961) were those at The University of Michigan and Michigan State University. At that time there were at least three theoretical approaches that influenced the staff of the centers which sprang up around the country during the 1960's.

The first was *behaviorism*. This was the era in which Skinnerian teaching machines were hailed as being education's equivalent to the industrial revolution. Instructional design based upon the principles of behaviorally defined goals (small learning steps in which students were virtually prevented from making any errors) and continual reinforcement reigned supreme. Thus, many of the original centers used part of their resources to help faculty members develop programmed learning materials. We at Michigan had excellent programs in statistics, anatomy, and foreign languages.

At the same time that behaviorism seemed to have triumphed, the T-Group, or *sensitivity training movement*, was also riding high. Top executives of corporations and educational institutions were flocking to Bethel, Maine or other centers to be trained to be sensitive, and many of the early centers attempted to apply the techniques of sensitivity training and organizational development to the university, working with deans and department chairs as well as with faculty members and student leaders to secure a better organizational climate for learning and teaching.

Between these two extremes was a third approach, a general, rather *eclectic application of principles of learning and individual differences*

derived from research in psychology and education. There was a growing interest in students' learning styles and methods of adapting to them. Student ratings of instruction flourished, partly as a result of pressures from students to have greater input into their own education expressed through the general student movement of the late 60's and early 70's and partly based upon the theory that feedback would result in improvement.

Some centers focused their efforts on one of these three approaches, but most used what seemed practical from each of the three along with the accumulated wisdom of faculty members who had developed effective techniques of teaching.

What of the Future?

As I see it, the dominant theories today deal with students. Our focus has shifted from instructional materials to faculty and now toward students and to the cognitive and motivational characteristics of students which are both the goals of higher education and the attributes that teachers need to consider in planning instructional strategies. But as contrasted with earlier theories of student types or learning styles, our work at the National Center for Research to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning (NCRIPTAL) has emphasized what students are doing and what they can learn to do, rather than on an attempt to fit students into categories.

Theories of the future, I think, will focus more than in the past on goals of education going beyond communication of the kind of content knowledge emphasized in our early behavioristic days. Our new theories will need to deal with helping faculty members develop strategies for training students to be more active, mindful learners and thinkers.

I believe that the theories of the future will also deal more with interpersonal and social-psychological aspects of learning. Probably the most popular and effective method of teaching in this era of faculty development is cooperative, or peer, learning. We know that cooperative learning works under most circumstances, but we still lack very good research and theory about when to use it, with what students to use it, how to organize cooperative groups, and how to train both students and teachers to take maximal advantage of peer learning.

In addition to the social-psychology of cooperative learning groups, we need to develop a better understanding of the dynamics of intact classes as groups. *The College Classroom* by Richard Mann, et al. (1970) gave us four case histories of some of the affective aspects of classes as groups, but we have relatively little data on the impact of different aspects of groups in either small or large university classes.

The third area in which I hope we develop theory and conceptualization is with respect to discipline-specific theories of teaching and learning. Most of our research deals with learning in psychology classes and other social sciences, although we have a gradually increasing store of data and research on the natural sciences. We have very little information in the areas of clinical teaching, the teaching of art, the teaching of languages, and the teaching of humanities in general. I hope that the 1990's will see us develop a better research-based set of theories dealing with the aspects of teaching and learning in these disciplines.

Three other theoretical areas are ones which I will not deal with at length, but see as potential areas of advancement. First, the area of motivation and particularly of how we can help both students and teachers to develop stronger intrinsic motivation for learning and teaching. Second, human-technology combinations. What are the appropriate roles of teachers, students, and computers in college courses? How can we facilitate effective integration of technology into education? Finally, how are teaching and learning affected by the total university and college culture? Back in the post-Sputnik days we conducted a number of studies dealing with differing university and college cultures. However, that work has never been tied in theoretically with the research and theory at the level of the course or classroom, or with learning and teaching as it functions at the course or classroom level.

Are these theories of faculty development? Not exactly. Basically, they are theories having to do with the conditions that affect teaching and learning. We assume that if we can help faculty members understand how their strategies of teaching (and their roles in the institution) affect student learning, they will be more effective in using the skills we help them develop. At the same time we may consciously, or unconsciously, use the same theories in helping faculty members develop.

Conclusion

To sum up, I see us having made great progress in thirty years. We have gained a lot of practical wisdom. We are less naive about the ability of any one approach to solve problems of teaching and learning, and we have a substantial body of theory, research, and practice on which to build during the 1990's.

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Faculty Vitality: 1990 and Beyond*

Joan North

University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point

I want to dedicate this talk to my Mother who died a little over a month ago. I have a very real sense that she is here today with us, because she's been following me around ever since. Hi, Mama.

Actually, my Mom's death is an appropriate symbol for my remarks this morning, since faculty vitality is a result of personal as well as professional and institutional factors. Grieving or other personal events can have a profound influence on a person's professional vitality.

The litmus test for faculty vitality has not been found yet. Each of us can identify faculty members on our campus who have vitality and even more readily those who do not. It is not a matter of age, although some people do seem to run out of it in later years. It is not related to money or rank, although rewards seem to follow it. It is aliveness, energy, optimism, and balance. Some of our new faculty never had it and never will; some of them had it and lost it; some still soar. I'm reminded of the story about the very old gentleman who decided to remarry, but his intended was only 45. His friends, very concerned about the physical demands of marriage, attempted to change his mind. They delicately expounded on calories burned and heart strain during marital relations. He listened carefully, pondered their ideas, and finally said, "Well if she dies, she dies." That is vitality.

I think our campuses have always been interested in faculty vitality, sometimes to keep the light burning in the assistant professor and sometimes

*Joan North presented this keynote address at the 15th Annual Conference of the POD Network on Saturday, November 3, 1990, Granlibakken at Lake Tahoe, California. Her presentation was both instructive and interactive. Rather than excise the interactive parts from this printed version, the author chose to leave them in, inviting her readers to participate by adapting the interactive portions to their own situations.

to salvage some worn out, bored, or demoralized post-tenure teachers. Many of you instigate pro-vitality strategies. But the campus personnel scene is rapidly changing. As Jack Schuster so clearly pointed out in his keynote (15th Annual POD Conference, November 2, 1990), supply and demand for faculty is at a new balance (El-Khawas, 1990; Bowen & Sosa, 1989). I see an almost consuming interest in recruiting and retaining faculty, which is unprecedented in my experience, harkening back, I suppose, to the heydays of the 60's, when I was a wee lass. If our campuses were doing a lot to keep faculty happy and vital before, we should see these efforts surge. The campus where faculty vitality is the norm is the campus which will be more successful in getting new faculty and keeping them.

And the panic is spreading. For the past year our campus's Deans' meetings featured more speculation about predictions for faculty shortages than predictions for snow. We are working with search and screen committees to help them move from a screen mentality to a search mentality, and we raised the starting salary for new assistant professors by $6000 this year (1990).

The University of Wisconsin System recently created a System Task Force to tackle ways of successfully recruiting and retaining faculty members. The 26-page draft report sounds the alarm: "The predicted shortage of faculty in the 1990's has begun earlier than projections said it would. . . . If the predictions are correct, we will have to make an exceptional commitment now, and a major effort over the next decade, to maintain the quality and reputation of University of Wisconsin System faculties." Where the funding for all this is coming from is another issue, and all the tea leaves suggest internal reallocation rather than new monies from our supporters.

I heard recently that new faculty at UW-Milwaukee can expect initial support in computers, lab equipment, and so forth of about $40,000, in addition to their salaries. Reputedly, Rutgers' average signing bonus is $80,000 worth of goodies. And the story is the same for institutions in California, Arizona, and probably for schools in your own state. Faculty will be valued by our institutions in a way most of us have not witnessed.

So where does that leave us, the faculty champions whose respect for faculty never waned? It also leaves us with more respect. We may find campuses turning to us more frequently and earnestly. What do the faculty want? What do they need? How can the administration help out? It may be a dream come true. We may be in a position to play a big league role in the new era of faculty hardball.

In trying to help our campuses retain these highly valued faculty mem-

bers, we may be able to propose a new concept of faculty development which offers both faculty and institutional vitality.

I remember debates within POD many years ago about the relative merits of approaching the personal, professional, or organizational aspects of the teaching profession. It went something like this: You have to deal with a faculty member's values and feelings before you can get into techniques of teaching style . . . no, no, figure out the mathematics freshmen need to learn and then you can systematically build the right course . . . no, no, just watch any course and you can help faculty members adopt successful teaching practices for that group of students. Those looking at the personal, organizational, or professional aspects of faculty development held fast to their separate beliefs, not unlike the wise men describing the elephant.

Since then, my impression from afar is that the professional development approach has claimed victory. But in the last five years, bringing with them such uncertainty about faculty supply, student enrollment, and resources, I have sensed a renewal of interest in the personal and organizational approaches under the new name "faculty and institutional vitality" (Bland & Schmitz, 1988, p. 190).

Actually, as Schuster and Wheeler (1990) point out, the times seem to call for an "enhanced faculty development" concept that integrates the "various aspects of professional development with the *individual* career, thereby bridging more successfully the personal, professional, and organizational elements of development. . ." (p. 279). Today, I would like to suggest two aspects of an enhanced faculty development approach: faculty wellness and institutional quality of life.

Faculty Wellness

Faculty wellness refers to organized institutional efforts to promote and maintain the health and overall well being of faculty. Although some approaches to wellness concentrate only on the physical aspect, a full wellness program will address other aspects of a person's life, such as career issues; work situation; family, social, and spiritual or meaning, issues.

We are all familiar with the general public's interest in promoting better health. We tell a story in Stevens Point about a couple who die in their 80's and go to heaven where they have wonderful golf courses, great entertainment, and good weather. The husband doesn't seem too happy about the luxury and mopes around. So his wife asks him what's bothering him. He snaps at her, "If you hadn't made us eat all that damn oat bran, we could have enjoyed this ten years ago!"

But people are skeptical. Perhaps some of you are, too. Is the wellness

movement a fad? All I can say is that people used to ask the same question about faculty development. Actually, few people raise the fad issue about either one anymore. Both seem to have become part of organizational life in their respective sectors. And the two movements actually have much in common. Let me elaborate.

1) Although the wellness movement is about 15 years old, and I guess faculty development to be about 30, both have moved from fairly simple orientations to complex, holistic views. If the new focus for faculty development is faculty and institutional vitality, the new focus for wellness moves beyond fitness to personal self esteem and organizational self responsibility (Powell, 1990).

2) Both began as fringe, do-good operations within organizations and then established themselves as vital to organizational success.

3) Both deal with the interdependency between the personal and professional.

4) There is a natural connection between faculty health and faculty vitality. In fact, a recent Gallup Poll reported that when asked the question "What is health?" the number one, most frequent, response was "living a vital life" (Metcalfe, 1990).

Today, all over the country, campuses are starting employee wellness programs in the hopes that faculty and staff will feel better and do their jobs better. In a survey I did a few years ago, I identified over 200 campuses with formal wellness programs (North & Munson, 1990). Although some programs were primarily interested in reducing health care costs, all recognized the interrelationships among body, health, emotions, and one's performance at work. All see the closeness between the human *being* and the human *doing*.

Faculty members who are exhausted by stress cannot be lively and vital: they probably snap at students, avoid any new ideas which would take up more of their time, and can't think clearly. Furthermore, medical research now tells us that these people will become disabled or die before their time, perhaps vacating a key faculty spot.

New faculty members who do not establish good social networks may suffer from loneliness and depression and will consider leaving your institution. As an aside, I might mention that in Stevens Point I helped to found an organization for single professionals who are new to town—the Central Wisconsin Network. It now has over 200 members and sponsors dozens of activities each month. I consider that one of my finest contributions to faculty wellness.

Furthermore, many faculty groups, like employees in other sectors, now feel that organized wellness activities are an employment perk that makes

working at one location better than working at others. Some of our highly paid new faculty may come to expect a wellness program along with the computer on the desk.

From my survey I determined that few wellness programs operate under or in conjunction with faculty development programs: University of Georgia, University of Louisville, and the University of St. Thomas are notable exceptions. These campuses use a comprehensive model of wellness that addresses not only the physical aspects of faculty members, but also other dimensions such as the intellectual, occupational, social, emotional, and spiritual. When one examines all these dimensions of wellness, it seems quite possible that faculty wellness could be a vital part of the "enhanced faculty development" commitment of a campus.

Institutional Quality of Life

The second aspect of an enhanced faculty development I would like to propose is institutional quality of life, which for me means those structures, norms, or processes which lead to faculty and institutional vitality. I would like to suggest some of my own. There are three quality of life issues I would bring to your attention: continuous improvement versus assessment process, social structures, and work stressors.

Continuous Improvement Versus Assessment Processes

The mystery is gone, and with the assessment movement blossoming no profession or campus seems immune from having to prove it is doing a good job. I know of a few campuses where assessment has been a real stimulus to faculty and campus vitality. I think of Alverno College in Wisconsin, for instance.

But I also have fears that the assessment movement in higher education could become one of the major sources of faculty and institutional routinization and dullness—the opposites of vitality. William Glasser argues in a seminal *Kappan* article that we should focus our educational ventures on quality, not control, that efforts to standardize education so that students do well on assessment tests produce more fragmentation of information (because it's more testable), and less satisfaction and creativity for faculty and students alike (Glasser, 1990). He recommends that we focus on producing quality with a formalized approach to continuous improvement of our work, much like Deming's recommendations to Japanese industry decades ago. While much work still needs to be done to adapt the continuous improvement

model to higher education, it seems to me that this type of accountability model could satisfy our doubting publics and foster vitality at the same time.

The thought of working with my colleagues on continuous improvement of our ventures sounds refreshing and it sounds a lot like faculty development.

Social Structures

The second quality of life issue I want to suggest refers to social structures. We have read a great deal recently about the power of cooperative learning, learning in teams; we have also read that this approach promises significant intellectual as well as social gains (Millis, 1990). Why not conceptualize cooperative learning for faculty as well? Imagine how helpful an organized group of colleagues could be for new faculty, for faculty beginning research projects, or for faculty teaching a different size class. Working in pairs or a team could provide added motivation and support. We know that creativity is enhanced by group interaction and yet so much of our academic life remains solitary.

One of the lessons of stress management is that individuals need social supports both at home and in the professional setting. Faculty vitality and social supports go together. Although faculty governance provides some of this social interaction, the major missions of our campuses—teaching and research—seem to remain solitary activities. Are there ways to promote increased interaction among faculty in their teaching or research roles?

POD has long been an advocate of social supports and support networks, notably at its conferences. I remember, as many of you do, mixers, buddy systems, and so forth. One year the Core Committee was told that their primary job during the annual conference was to help make people feel at home.

Work Stressors

The final quality of life dimension I would like to address deals with work stressors. In the stress management class I teach to undergraduates every semester, I advocate that each student identify his or her environmental stressors, those things in one's life which always seem to lead to frustration, worry, fear, or disappointment. It seems to me that if we want to make our work environment as desirable as possible and if we want to reduce as many barriers as possible to vitality, we would want to know which things in our campus environment cause faculty the most distress.

An annual "distress survey" could reveal those areas which most significantly impair faculty vitality. Similar surveys at my campus, in tandem with our strategic plan, have identified clear goals for the administration. Common

faculty problems may include role ambiguity (not knowing what exactly you are getting evaluated on), lack of rewards, not having enough time and needing to give up or phase down less important tasks, isolation, and managing family and work responsibilities.

The University of Wisconsin-Madison's School of Agriculture and Life Sciences developed a three-tape series called *Coping with Academic Stress* which may be helpful in pinpointing sources of academic stressors.

Your Own Wellness and Vitality

At this point I would like to shift the focus and get more personal. Let's talk about you. I would like to have you look at your own vitality, your own personal level of wellness. At wellness meetings there are always special sessions for people in care-giving professions like yours, because many professionals in this field tend to others while neglecting themselves. Let me give you my personal prescription for wellness, a prescription which addresses stressors in your environment and your tendencies to react to them in certain ways. Finally, I'd like to suggest some ways of keeping your body in an anti-stress mode.

1. Stressors

Stressors are those events, people, and environmental conditions (such as smoke or noise or cold), that have a tendency to trigger the stress response. Stressors can be negative or positive events, and even when positive can still cause you physical problems. A wedding, for instance, is a joyous occasion, but also frequently associated with stress.

Take a minute to jot down stressors in your life, personal or professional. See if there are any you can avoid, and scratch them off. See if there are any you can fiddle with or rearrange so that they are not so potent. Make a few notes by one that you could try to change.

Work hard toward reducing the number of stressors in your life. For those you can't get rid of, think of some ways to minimize their effect.

2. Improving Your Reactions to Stressors

One of the things we learn from Albert Ellis or from Viktor Frankl is that we have tremendous power over our own reactions, even though we may react so automatically that we forget about our control (Ellis & Harper, 1979; Frankl, 1984). A major part of easing stress in your life, if you are like most people, is learning how much we create our own stress—in our heads. For instance, some people get impatient and angry when they are delayed and

others find alternative ways to use their time. Most physical stress occurs because we have interpreted circumstances in a way to produce stress or because the mind has created negative messages or worries. The mind is capable of creating the thought "I have exciting challenges today," as well as the thought "Oh, God, I have a hard day ahead."

For this exercise, work with a friend or colleague. You will need a watch with a second hand. In one minute, tell your partner the factual events of your day yesterday—just the facts, no emotions or interpretations. Now go back and retell the same facts, only this time, "awfulize"; tell the story as if you'd been cursed from birth, the story according to Excedrin. Now, go back and retell the story again, only this time from the point of view that your whole life is a wonderful opportunity; you see good in everything (Tubesing & Tubesing, 1984).

Notice how easily we awfulize; it's our national pastime, our heritage. The soaps specialize in it. We choose and reject our friends by their awfulizing abilities. Who wants a friend who's always optimistic? And yet awfulizing causes the predisposition to stress. Most of us have awful enough lives without awfulizing the neutral things. I have heard the suggestion that people in "hopeful professions," professions whose very structure assumes that positive change is possible, such as faculty development, may have fewer proficient awfulizers. Is that true for you?

So here is my list of suggestions for improving your vitality and health through improving your reactions to and predispositions toward stress:

a. Don't awfulize neutral events. Don't awfulize awful events, because that makes them worse.

b. Find the little critic in the back of your head, the one that specializes in your weaknesses and limitations. Don't let this be an unconscious process; listen to what it has to say and write the script. Whenever you hear one of these messages, imagine someone yelling loudly, "STOP!"

c. Monthly, identify or reaffirm four or five good qualities you have and keep reminding yourself about them, preferably in a relaxed state.

d. Make sure you have one or two true friends. True friends are people whose faces light up when you enter the room and who have no plans for your improvement.

e. Watch for little victories and concentrate on your successes. Most people don't take time to give you credit or much thanks, so you may have to ask for it or give it to yourself.

3. Reversing the Stress Response in the Body

The body is stuck with all the harmful physiological effects of stress if you have too much of it or if you don't exercise it out: muscle tension, heart difficulties, immune system problems, digestion difficulties, kidney problems, diabetes, not to mention body odor or clammy hands. The things I will recommend are not necessarily geared to eliminating the stressor or improving your reaction, but are directed to fooling Mother Nature into thinking that the alarm has passed and the body can return to normal. We try to find ways to relax the muscles (making breathing slow and deep) and warm the extremities.

Let's practice. Work with a partner who is sitting straight in a chair. You should be standing behind your partner. Now rub your partner's shoulders and upper back. Begin by alternating each of your thumbs, rubbing down the muscles on each side of the spine. Do that six times on each side. Then make thumb circles down each shoulder. While these three massage steps are only a small portion of a thorough massage, they can give you an idea of how tense most of us actually are. Rubbing physically relaxes the muscles so that the rest of the body says, "Hey the alarm must have passed, the muscles are relaxing. I guess we can all go home."

Stress dots or cards are readily available and can be used to monitor your body's stress response. The dots change color with your temperature. One of the physiological signs of stress is the re-direction of blood flow from the extremities to the heart and major muscles, so one measure of stress, or lack thereof, is the temperature of your hands. Put the dot on the back of your hand and try to relax to the point where it moves from black (89 degrees), to yellow (90.6), to green (91.6), to turquoise (92.6), to blue (93.6), to violet (94.6).

Here are some of my suggestions to keep your body relaxing. In general, do the following things a lot:

1) Relax: take deep breaths, especially when you feel tense, angry, or frustrated.

2) Listen to soothing music.

3) Close your eyes every once in a while and imagine a wonderful beach scene.

4) Exercise and eat well. Exercise disposes of the waste products from stress and builds your stamina for handling more stress. Good nutrition also builds up your stamina. Too much stress depletes the body of vitamins, especially the B complex vitamins. Also, some substances act as pseudo-stressors, so watch for them: e.g., caffeine in chocolate, coffee, and tea; as well as nicotine, and sugars.

5) Touch and get touched.

6) Make a list of your joys and pleasures and then put a check by those that you do not do often enough.

Finally, for your health and vitality, as well as mine, be nice to deans.

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Finding the Right Match: Staffing Faculty Development Centers

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The quality of staff in a faculty development unit is central to its success. Yet, locating and hiring professional staff for faculty development is a recurring need not often discussed in the published literature. This article is addressed to those involved in employment decisions regarding professionally staffed centers for faculty development. It discusses the advantages and disadvantages of different staffing options, the search process, and the need to prepare future staff. The term "faculty development" is used here as a general descriptor to encompass not only organized efforts to develop the knowledge and skills of faculty, but also systematic activities aimed at improving instruction through developing courses and curricula ("instructional development") and institutional policies and practices ("organizational development").

The National Context

Although concerns for instructional improvement, particularly through curriculum development and alternative teaching methods, have a long history in higher education, offices and centers for faculty development only began to appear as recently as the early 1960s. Two national studies have surveyed colleges and universities in an attempt to estimate the extent of the faculty development enterprise in the United States (Centra, 1976; Erickson, 1986). Although the two surveys differed in their selected populations (Centra contacted 2,600 presidents of universities, four-year colleges, and

two-year colleges, while Erickson contacted 1,600 chief academic officers of universities and four-year colleges), their questions followed a similar line of inquiry. Taken together, the two surveys provide a general indication of the incidence of faculty development programs, the kinds of activities offered, and the ways in which the operations are organized and funded. For universities and four-year colleges, a comparison of the Centra and Erickson survey findings also reveals changes that occurred over a ten-year period. Some comparative information from the two studies indicates that:

- Depending on which population or sample is selected, somewhere between 40% and 63% of the colleges and universities had "an organized program or set of practices for the development and improvement of instruction."
- Again depending on the criterion used, somewhere between 12% and 53% of the accredited postsecondary institutions had "a designated unit or person for the development and improvement of instruction."
- Although comparable data are not available for the Erickson study, the Centra study indicated that, of those institutions having a designated unit for faculty development in 1976, the professional staff for these units was most frequently one full-time director, followed by four or more staff members, two to three staff members, and, finally, less than one full-time staff member; a greater number of universities than two-year or four-year colleges had units with four or more staff members.
- According to the Erickson findings, there were advisory committees for faculty development at 62% of the responding four-year colleges and universities, but committees actually coordinated or provided services in only 14% of the institutions; most typically, a dean or other administrator had responsibility for faculty development as one of his or her several duties.

Three Common Staffing Options: Advantages and Disadvantages

In both Centra's and Erickson's surveys, in organizations in which professional staff supports the work of faculty development (in contrast to professional committee support or delegation of parts of the function to several individuals who primarily serve other roles), three main staffing patterns can be identified. These staffing patterns include full-time staff members specifically hired for the positions, faculty members with joint appointments in academic units who work part-time at the center, or graduate students who work part-time at the center. Each arrangement has several

advantages and disadvantages, which are discussed according to the following criteria: (a) stability and continuity; (b) commitment; (c) status within the institution; (d) knowledge base on teaching; (e) knowledge base on teaching development; (f) complementarity of staffing; and (g) personnel costs.

Stability and continuity. For providing continuous staffing of a center as well as continuity of program planning, the full-time staff member is clearly the option of choice. When a faculty joint appointment extends over several years, continuity can exist, but continuous staffing of the center is jeopardized when the faculty member is attending to teaching or other non-center responsibilities. The graduate student arrangement is the least satisfactory in this respect, since graduate students' schedules depend on the demands of their graduate programs. In addition, high turnover occurs when graduate students move on to other positions or complete their degrees.

Commitment. Similarly, although all three types of staffing options can employ persons who are equally committed to faculty development work, the ability of the full-time professional staff member to focus exclusively on this function places him or her at an advantage over the other two types of staff members, who have other responsibilities competing for their attention. An additional consideration is that those drawn specifically to faculty development work may have a service orientation and a personal preference for interpersonal contact and development—characteristics that are not always associated with faculty and graduate students, who may see their main strengths and interests in disciplinary research.

Commitment may also be linked to the different reward systems in place for each staffing option. The professional staff member most logically would be evaluated and rewarded largely on the basis of efforts taken to improve instruction at the institution, whereas for faculty on joint appointments as well as for graduate students the primary motivation may be some kind of research productivity. Faculty in tenure-track appointments and graduate associates might be faced with frequent role conflict in deciding where to place their efforts.

Status within the institution. Of the three arrangements, the faculty joint appointment best fulfills the criterion of status (i.e., respect and credibility), since collegiality and institutional familiarity are powerful assets. The professional staff member can earn a similar respect, especially if the staff member: (a) has professional qualifications such as the doctorate, and has teaching and research experience; (b) is involved in professional associations and disciplinary groups valued by faculty; or (c) holds an adjunct faculty appointment. The graduate student normally has the least status, although a graduate student can have credibility if the center works with teaching

assistants. When faculty are the target audience or recipients of center services, graduate associates can help surmount their status differences through a strong personal presence and outstanding qualifications that the faculty will respect.

Knowledge base on teaching. Although experience with college teaching is important in a faculty developer, more critical is the kind of experience. For example, a graduate student who has been a teaching assistant with responsibility for grading papers or leading discussions often does not have the range of experiences that is desired; or, a professor who has lectured in physiology for many years will not automatically be able to relate to performance assessment in theatre. The ability to relate practical experiences to a body of theoretical concepts and research (e.g., teaching, student development and learning, curriculum and instructional technology) will also be an important characteristic of an effective faculty developer. Although this kind of knowledge may be found in any of the three staffing options under discussion, the full-time professional staff member is most likely to have the opportunity to cultivate it.

Knowledge base on teacher development. Faculty with joint appointments and graduate students can possess considerable knowledge of personal and professional development, consulting strategies for instructional improvement, and other skills related to the work of a faculty development center. However, this background is more likely to be found in full-time staff members, professionals who devote their careers to giving systematic attention to the study and improvement of instruction. Such professionals are most likely to have had previous experiences using videotaping and feedback, and observation instruments, and are most likely to have read broadly in the literature on professional growth in teaching. In addition, they are more likely to have pursued and to continue to pursue dialogue with others in teaching improvement, through attendance at conferences and information meetings of developers.

Complementarity of staffing. Given the broad scope of disciplines taught at most institutions, and the range of needs addressed through consulting work, an advantage of staffing a center with a variety of individuals who serve on a part-time basis, rather than with one full-time professional staff member, is increased diversity of academic backgrounds and options for center services. In addition, a larger staff increases collaborative possibilities for accomplishing many kinds of tasks, rather than only those associated with a given individual's strengths and vision.

Personnel costs. On the basis of salary alone, the full-time professional staff member will usually be the most costly in terms of absolute financial

commitment. When time and benefits are factored into the equation, however, faculty salaries are usually higher than those of professional staff members. Financial commitments to graduate students can also come close to professional salaries when the usual tuition waivers and fees are factored into the total cost, especially at research universities where a 50% appointment can run between $10,000-$15,000 per calendar year.

The faculty joint appointment, with the faculty member operating from his or her own office with existing secretarial support and equipment, has the advantage of low overhead. The other two options both require space, equipment, and clerical support. In addition, the graduate student appointment will usually require some supervision by professional staff with responsibilities for managing the center or program.

Summary. Clearly, there are trade-offs in choosing one form of staffing over another. Often, because of cash flow, limited funding, or availability of personnel, there are few options. In many cases, some blend of the three staffing patterns, such as a full-time director, part-time faculty associate, and graduate associate, can be used to staff a center effectively. Fit within the institutional context and the quality and complementarity of those staff who are chosen are paramount considerations.

Finding an Effective Faculty Developer

Whatever the staffing option, certain qualities are desirable in the faculty developer. The range of competencies and attributes needed for a faculty developer suggests a person who can "walk on water"—one who has a rare blend of conceptual, technical, interpersonal, and organizational skills. Such people are hard to find, and given the probability that there will be trade-offs, it is necessary to think about the specific traits and experiences that are most desirable, and the importance of each.

Faculty development personnel, if they are to be effective, must possess a wide varity of talents, but among the most important are the ability to:

1. engage in needs assessment activities;
2. design and develop strategies that promote individual, pedagogical, curricular, and organizational growth;
3. organize and implement specific programs, projects, and studies;
4. plan and deliver oral presentations;

5. conduct research about teaching and learning, and the evaluation of instruction;

6. produce print and non-print communications; and

7. establish and maintain consulting relationships.

Once the list of desired qualities and a position description are prepared, the next task in finding a staff member is building a good pool of candidates. In the case of joint faculty and graduate student appointments, the search will be within the institution. The tendency is often to appoint someone who is known, but if time and circumstances permit, a more systematic search might yield better results.

Position announcements can be circulated widely through direct mail on campus, and nominations can be sought from department chairpersons, other administrators, and faculty. A special network of affirmative action contacts can also be cultivated for referrals, further increasing the richness of the candidate pool. In the case of a full-time professional staff member, building the most diverse pool often will involve a national search. Postings in *The Chronicle of Higher Education, Black Issues in Higher Education,* and other national publications, while relatively expensive, can generate widespread attention. Notices can also be sent to colleagues at other centers or to one's own professional group. If the timing is right, position descriptions can be circulated at national meetings. After the candidate pool is developed, a search committee that includes a member who is especially entrusted to foster affirmative action considerations will also help to ensure that diverse perspectives are represented.

The next task involves three stages of assessing candidates' qualifications: (a) preliminary screening; (b) pre-interview screening; and (c) the interview.

Preliminary screening. There may be many applicants for faculty development positions; a nationally posted professional position can easily draw more than fifty applicants, and university-posted graduate associate positions can also attract high numbers of applicants. A systematic search should start with some written documentation of the candidates' qualifications and interests. Often, this approach will consist of a letter of application and a resume. Letters of recommendation and a writing sample can also be requested.

In making a preliminary pass through these materials, the search committee might use a checklist or rating form to organize and facilitate comparisons, especially if there are many applicants. Appendix A contains an

example of one that was used in an actual search. The rating form requires that candidates be sorted into categories such as D (definitely pursue), R (retain for further consideration), and E (eliminate from further consideration). Experience using this system has shown that a committee working together to assess the candidates generally obtains a high interrater agreement within categories.

Pre-interview screening. To determine the relative strength of candidates within categories, the search committee may find it necessary to get more information than is submitted in a letter of application and resume. Telephone or written interviews with candidates, telephone calls to referees, and requests for videotaped presentations are ways of gathering additional and/or confirming information without going to the time and expense of personal screening interviews. Appendix B includes sample questions used in telephone interviews with candidates and with telephone calls to referees. For internal searches, telephone calls or personal conversations with those who know of the person's work will be most productive, although the proximity of the candidates means that other ways of gathering information, such as arranging to visit their classes or asking them to conduct trial workshops, might be available. A short list of candidates to interview will result from compiling and assessing pre-interview screening information.

The interview. Prior to the interview, usually scheduled for a full day in the case of a national search, it is useful to construct a set of questions that will be asked of all interviewees. These questions should be "job specific" and conform to affirmative action guidelines. In addition to interview sessions, during which various individuals and groups have the opportunity to ask questions of the candidate and the candidate has the opportunity to ask about the position, it is useful to include some performance task for candidates if personnel policies at the institution permit. Examples of these tasks include having the candidate lead a faculty workshop (which is videotaped and reviewed), asking the candidate to watch a videotape of a faculty member teaching and then talk with the committee members about how a consultation with that faculty member would be handled, and asking the candidate to draw up a planning timeline and budget for a faculty development event. Appendix C includes an example of one such task. Graduate students will not usually undergo an extensive interview, but they can be asked to abstract a research report or complete a task similar to one they would be doing on the job.

The goal of a systematic search, when coupled with continuing attention to staff adjustment and growth, is to produce long-term benefits for the center. When all of the pieces of evaluative information are compiled, there are likely to be difficult decisions to make based on committee members' assessments

of the different strengths and weaknesses associated with each candidate. Seeking advice from others and assessing the ways in which each candidate will complement the existing staff and fit within the context of the institution are important at this time.

Staffing Faculty Development Centers: Planning for the Future

As a final staffing consideration, looking to the future of our field, it is important to encourage faculty development as a specialization within the field of higher education. Schein (1972) and others have identified a number of characteristics of professions, including a body of accepted knowledge for practice and formal preparation programs at an advanced level, yet when we look at the settings in which we would expect to find such knowledge being cultivated, we find that they are lacking.

Linkages to graduate programs. In her review of doctoral programs in higher education, Townsend (1990) identified 88 universities that in 1988 offered graduate degrees in higher education. Surveys of directors of these higher education programs (e.g., Crosson & Nelson, 1986) have found that: (a) approximately 85% of the programs identify their primary purpose as the preparation of "leaders" for higher education (practitioners, primarily senior-level administrators for colleges and universities); (b) nearly one-half of the programs indicate that one of their purposes is to prepare faculty and administrators who will study higher education (researchers/scholars in field); (c) about 20% intend to prepare leaders for agencies dealing with higher education (state and federal agencies, foundations, etc.); and (d) approximately 13% specialize in the area of teaching and instruction. From the survey data available, it does not appear that any of the current doctoral programs in higher education are designed for the primary purpose of preparing administrators or staff for faculty, instructional, or organizational development programs in colleges and universities.

Two caveats should be exercised in interpreting these survey findings. First, although specific higher education programs may not specialize in faculty, instructional, or organizational development, many programs offer courses directly relevant to these practices. Such courses may focus on college and university teaching, college students and learning, higher education curricula, or the professoriate. In addition, more general courses are offered in areas such as the administration of higher education, institutional research, and the philosophical and historical foundations of higher education.

A second caution in interpreting surveys of higher education programs is that many programs have individual faculty and graduate students with at least latent interests in the work of faculty development centers and programs. We are a young profession—our earliest centers began operating in the mid-1960s. As our activities become more mature and visible in colleges and universities throughout the nation, and as our programs take on a strategic role in the life of our institutions, we may expect that the work of faculty and instructional development centers will be reflected to a greater extent in the offerings of higher education programs.

It is important to cultivate greater involvement of higher education academic programs in faculty development work. The current press for improved instruction in colleges and universities argues for the creation of some specialized programs in which students can concentrate on postsecondary instruction, curriculum, and faculty, instructional, and organizational development. Programs at institutions with strong faculty development centers can draw upon adjunct faculty from these centers and can establish internships to provide a strong grounding in practice.

The growing respect for "practice-centered inquiry" also has the potential to strengthen linkages with programs and centers. Faculty in higher education programs can respond to the dual call to produce scholars and practitioners by rooting scholarly inquiry in practice settings and problems. The faculty's own multiple roles as administrators, consultants, and policy analysts can also benefit from such a practice-centered approach.

Linkages to faculty and graduate students in disciplines other than education. We should not overlook the opportunity of finding interested (and qualified) graduate students and faculty elsewhere in our institutions. Informal surveys reveal that a large number of professionals in our field completed their graduate work in education programs other than higher education (e.g., curriculum and instruction, instructional design and technology, research and evaluation, educational administration), in disciplines and fields other than education (e.g., psychology, sociology, political science, natural sciences), and in fields and disciplines that adjoin education (e.g., agricultural education, art education, math education, medical education, science education). Therefore, we can expect that preparing future faculty developers can take place in several settings, including our own centers.

A commitment to "growing our own." Just as centers can benefit from employing graduate students, so, too, can centers contribute to opportunities for enhancing graduate education. Baird (1990), for example, notes these among the prevalent shortcomings in graduate education:

- Students hope to join a community of scholars. Instead, they find themselves being pushed into relative intellectual isolation from other people and concentrating in a narrow specialty that few can share with them.
- Students desire to work with professors who will guide them and reflect on their work. Instead, they find access to professors limited and at times they are subjected to treatment they consider demeaning. Women students and minorities still encounter considerable discrimination.
- Students want to engage in learning that will enhance their capabilities. Instead, graduate students may find themselves held to inquiries that reflect not their own interests and intellectual predilections, but that of their professors. What is worse, they often labor on dissertations that drag out and are doubly difficult to finish because the subject they are inquiring into is not in agreement with their own talents, motivations, and curiosity.
- Most graduate students express a strong interest in teaching. Yet, usually they are taught to neglect teaching, if not to have contempt for it. Adequate training for teaching rarely exists (p. 381).

Liaisons with a faculty development center can help to fill some of these voids and can help graduate students realize their expectations. In addition, time and effort spent in developing graduate students can have payoffs not only for their immediate positions, but for their future careers as well. Even if graduate students do not become staff in faculty and instructional development centers, many will hold future faculty and administrative positions in higher education.

Conclusions

Staffing arrangements and preferences vary by institution and faculty development center. Some of the factors that bear on which staffing options are used include institutional needs and commitments, size, complexity, mission, history, and resources available for faculty development. Choices made will entail some tradeoffs across such considerations as stability, commitment, status, and knowledge.

Organizing and conducting an effective search process is important in filling present positions. A long-term need is for faculty development centers to forge effective working relationships with graduate programs for the preparation of future professionals, and to contribute to the enhancement of these programs for both faculty and graduate students.

Although many factors contribute to the success of a faculty development unit, the quality of its staff is primary. It is critical to the immediate and

long range health of the profession that effective practitioners are prepared for and attracted to the vital work we perform.

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Appendix A: Candidate Application Rating Form

Candidate: _____ Reviewer: _____

CRITERIA (Qualities)	LEVEL Elem/Sec	Adult/Cont	Coll/Univ
A. Successful teaching experience			
B. Consulting with instructors for improvement			
C. Planning and implementing programs (orientations, workshops, other presentations)			
D. Use of videotaping for observation and feedback			
E. Overseeing and conducting instructional evaluation services			
F. Grant writing			
G. Development of written materials			
H. Research on instruction			
I. Communication skills			
J. Organizational skills			
CUMULATIVE[1]:			

OVERALL RATING[2]: _____

[1]Based on sum of item scores from A-J above, each item rated as follows:
0 = none; 1 = a bit; 2 = moderate amount; 3 = a lot

[2]E = Eliminate from further consideration
R = Retain in pool but do not pursue at this time
D = Definitely pursue further information or interview

Appendix B: Telephone Questions Asked of Candidate's References

1. How well would this person work with faculty/TAs at Ohio State? Does this person have sufficient breadth and depth of experience to be knowledgeable about college teaching in different disciplines within the university?
2. Does this person have sufficient experience in faculty and staff development, such as organizing and implementing programs, conducting orientations and workshops, consulting with individual faculty/TAs, using video as a means of providing faculty/TAs with feedback on their teaching?
3. Does this person have a strong background in theory and practice of instructional evaluation, especially formative evaluation used for the improvement of teaching?
4. Can this person write proposals and manage projects that are funded for the purpose of improving the knowledge and practice of university teaching?
5. Is this person familiar with the literature on college teaching and can (s)he synthesize such literature, write clearly, and deliver professional presentations and papers?
6. Does this person possess strong interpersonal skills and good work habits such as regular attendance, punctuality, effective telephone and in-person communications, handling paperwork in a timely and efficient manner?
7. Are there other strengths of this person that you would want to bring to our attention?
8. Are there areas relevant to our position and the nature of our work that you feel this person needs to improve or develop further to be proficient?

Telephone Questions Asked of Candidate in Preliminary Screening

1. Do you have questions you would like to ask about the basic position description?
2. Do you understand the position requirements, salary range, and other expectations?
3. Please tell me why you are interested in this position and what qualities you would bring.
4. Discuss two strategies that might be used in working with faculty or teaching associates at this university, and the advantages and disadvantages of each.

5. Can you identify for me the following commonly used terms in faculty development work: wait time, Bloom's taxonomy, microteaching, formative evaluation?
6. Can you identify the following people: Wilbert McKeachie, William Perry, Ernest Boyer.

Appendix C: Sample Candidate Task

As part of the interview visit, you will be asked to design a two-hour workshop suitable for a faculty audience on the topic of "Leading Effective Class Discussions." You will only be asked to deliver one 10- to 15-minute segment of the workshop, but should bring 10 copies of the full workshop agenda, as well as any handouts that would be used.

The short workshop segment will be presented to the Search Committee and members of the Center for Teaching Excellence Leadership Council. Another 15 minutes will be allocated for discussion and follow-up. The presentation will take place in a conference room, with the audience seated at a long table. A white board is available for writing and you may request audiovisual equipment in advance if you desire to use it.

Section II

A Primer for Faculty Development Professionals

Faculty development is a sophisticated, dynamic, demanding, and challenging field that calls for professional staff possessing a broad range of competencies, skills, and positive personal qualities. Indeed, as Sell and Chism point out in an earlier article, the "range of competencies and attributes needed for a faculty developer suggests a person who can 'walk on water'—one who has a rare blend of conceptual, technical, interpersonal, and organizational skills." But even those developers fortunate enough to possess such enviable skills and attributes need something else if they are to flourish as facilitators. The formula for success calls for still another essential ingredient—the help and counsel of professional colleagues. Sharing is not only the hallmark of our enterprise, but also the secret of our survival. The first chapter in the success stories of most faculty development professionals follows a predictable scenario. Those familiar with the field have probably heard it dozens of times: At first I didn't know which way to turn, but I gained a sense of direction after picking up the phone and talking to a few of the "veterans."

Section II emblematizes the kind of generous sharing that makes our careers as developers productive and satisfying. In the following pages colleagues share some of the many things every faculty development professional ought to know. In short, this Section is a primer for faculty developers.

If faculty developers are to serve as effective change agents they must be able to motivate their colleagues. But the ability to motivate does not magically appear. The skill of motivation, like other skills, has to be acquired. One way to become a more effective motivator is to understand better the complex domain of attitude formation and transformation. Two of the articles in this Section take us into this fascinating realm. Richard F. Lewis, in "How

Attitudes Change: A Primer for Faculty Developers," begins by arguing that developers, if they hope to be effective, must understand attitude formation and the techniques of persuasion, and then continues by identifying and discussing ten of the primary theories of attitude change. Russell Lee and Michael Field also focus upon attitude, but their approach is more descriptive than theoretical. In "University Faculty Attitudes Towards Teaching and Research," they share with us what they learned about how faculty "feel and think about their lives as professionals" from a survey recently conducted at seven schools in the Minnesota State University System.

But attitude formation is only one of many areas in which developers must become knowledgeable. Christine A. Stanley and Nancy V. Chism, in "Selected Characteristics of New Faculty: Implications for Faculty Development," and Virginia van der Bogert, in "Starting Out: Experiences of New Faculty at a Teaching University," remind us through their reports on two surveys conducted at state universities, of how important it is for professional development professionals to be aware of, and sensitive to, new faculty expectations and needs. Martin Nemko and Ronald D. Simpson ("Nine Keys to Enhancing Campus Wide Influence of Faculty Development Centers") reveal nine strategies for strengthening the political clout of faculty development centers. Daniel R. Rice, in "What Every Faculty Development Professional Needs to Know about Higher Education," describes a framework developers can use in their attempts to navigate the labyrinthine mazes of organizational structures in institutions of higher learning. And, finally, Martin Nemko, in "Outside Consultants: When, Who, and How to Use Them," provides several useful tips on how to know when a consultant is needed, how to find the right consultant for the job, and how to ensure maximum benefit at minimum cost.

How Attitudes Change: A Primer for Faculty Developers

Richard F. Lewis

University of Windsor

Professors' attitudes can make roaring successes or dismal failures of the elaborate plans and programs of the faculty developer. To achieve personal, instructional, and institutional vitality, faculty developers need professors to make changes. Anyone who has worked in faculty development can cite many examples of faculty who knew how to improve teaching but did not do it. Schuster (1990) notes that we know the goals of faculty development and the means to reach the goals. What remains is the gap between information and practice. We often have the information, but not the will to change how we act.

It seems rather obvious to suggest that a professor must be motivated to change in order for change to take place. However, the rewards and punishments of academic life appear to be insufficient to bring about change and vitality. We have to persuade professors to change what they do and how they do it. The role of the faculty developer can be viewed as dealing with persuasion: helping professors to change their attitudes to those that will improve vitality.

This article deals with attitude, what it is, and how some theorists have suggested it can be changed. It presents principles that explain how and why attitudes change. It should help readers understand and apply some of the principles to their own work. Because the principles are based on theories, the reader may find conflicts in the suggestions within the article. Theorists view the problem of attitude change from their own perspective. Their differing perspectives are not unlike several people looking into a room from different windows: each sees the contents of the room from only one perspcetive. Similarly, theorists appear to concentrate on one area.

To be effective, a faculty developer must encourage professors to learn about effective teaching and personal development strategies like those

suggested by Eble and McKeachie (1965) and Cross (1980). Learning is not enough, however, if the teaching and other development procedures do not change. Since attitude appears to influence whether professors actually act on the knowledge they have about teaching, they must be persuaded to change their attitude and their behavior. The developer, a key catalyst, must understand attitude formation and the techniques of persuasion. What helps professors to change their behavior? What conditions are related to the development of new attitudes? These become crucial questions in an educational environment facing new challenges and new technology with an established faculty and a limited budget.

The Nature of Attitude

Attitude describes how we feel about something: a general and enduring positive or negative feeling about some person, object, or issue (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). The attitudes we express suggest how we might behave, and help others know how to deal with us. Attitudes cannot be measured directly. They must be inferred from some behavior, usually verbal expression, sometimes prompted or from expressions on a printed form. Even with available attitude-measuring methods we cannot assume that we have correctly inferred a person's attitude. Expression of attitude can vary as a result of the audience, the instrument, and other factors related to the subject under study such as physical condition and state of mind.

Some attitude change theories place emphasis on the beliefs we hold, suggesting that if beliefs can be changed, attitude change will follow. Beliefs represent the information we have about a topic. A belief may be factual (independently verifiable) or it may be quite fallacious. Other theories place emphasis on rewards, punishments, and factors unrelated to beliefs, implying that attitude change can result from rewards or punishment.

Theories of Attitude Change

Every school of psychology has a theory on how and why attitudes change and how to bring about attitude change in a manner consistent with the theory. Petty and Cacioppo (1981) suggest that all attempts to change attitude follow either a central or a peripheral route.

The central route to attitude change emphasizes the information people have about a topic. The theories related to the central route suggest that people change their attitudes because of the facts of a situation. To change attitude, a persuader must present information. Theoretically, a person ac-

cepts information and then integrates the information to form new attitudes. The process is rational and logical.

The peripheral route suggests that attitude change is determined not by information itself but by other factors associated with the information, such as rewards or punishments, judgmental distortions, or the motives of the presenter. Attitude change results without active thinking, but more as a result of external cues. Petty and Cacioppo (1981) suggest that attitude change brought about by the peripheral route is less enduring than change brought about by the central route.

To change attitude by the central route, one adopts a factual, no-frills approach. Assume that the person will evaluate information logically. Organize the information in the best way possible and present it. When all the facts are known, the person will change his or her attitude in a manner consistent with the information presented.

To change attitude by the peripheral route, one must provide some reward and/or change a person's perspective and/or carefully control who presents the information and how and why it is presented.

The two routes are not exclusive. Petty and Cacioppo (1981) suggest that a communicator wishing to change attitude may have to start with the peripheral route and then move to the central route. Thus, if people are not aware that they need to change, one must get their attention by any means possible, reward or punish where necessary, and control external cues related to the message which suggest that change is important. Once the person is open to receiving factual information, rational approaches to attitude change can be used.

Classical Conditioning Theory

Just as two stimuli can be linked through classical conditioning, an attitude may be linked to another stimulus (Staats & Staats, 1958). For instance, when we feel happy, we may associate that happiness with a product or event. An odor or sound may evoke memories. Advertisers use classical conditioning by identifying our needs and wants and then linking a product with them. Classical conditioning of attitudes consists of complex chains in which previously neutral stimuli such as words become like unconditioned stimuli.

The faculty developer should make every effort to link concepts and words with the correct stimuli. For instance, the word "teaching" has taken on a connotation that is related to presentation of information in class (much like a performance). The preparation activities so essential to teaching get lost. Similarly, teaching evaluation has become linked to results from forms

that students use to rate teaching. Since classical conditioning appears to occur almost imperceptibly (Staats & Staats, 1957), developers would be wise to link desired attitudes with unconditioned stimuli. For instance, we may have to link the term "teaching evaluation" with a wider range of assessment measures such as peer evaluation, self- evaluation, observation, and assessment of syllabi and assignments.

Ambrose (1990) provides an example of classical conditioning in a faculty development program. The faculty development workshops were accompanied by lunch. As a result, the workshops, previously a neutral stimulus, became a conditioned stimulus by being linked with the lunch, an unconditioned stimulus. Linking neutral stimuli with previously conditioned stimuli or unconditioned stimuli may help change attitude towards certain faculty development activities.

Reinforcement (Behaviorist) Theory

The behaviorist school maintains that attitudes can be conditioned in the same manner as other operant behaviors: if people are reinforced for a behavior from which an attitude can be inferred, that behavior will occur more often (Hildum & Brown, 1956). The indicator behavior can be either a verbal report of attitude or a reaction on an attitude scale. Changes effected in this manner are sometimes subject to fading when the consequences are removed.

For instance, not too long ago, racial, ethnic, and even regional jokes were routinely heard at meetings of academics. Today, such jokes should be and often are greeted with grimaces and stony silence. Theoretically, when a behavior is not reinforced, it should decrease. The grimaces and stony silence should not reinforce the behavior, thus reducing its incidence. However, in situations where such humor is tolerated by a receptive audience, the behavior will persist.

Here is how the theory could be applied. If faculty members express positive ideas about faculty development, they would be reinforced, usually verbally. Comments negative to faculty development could be challenged or ignored. Behaviors that show evidence of attempts to improve teaching, like excellent course outlines, varied instructional techniques, and valid evaluation techniques, could be reinforced through recognition in publications or teaching awards. Biand and Schmitz (1990) report that fifteen authors mention faculty development activities as being important to the success of faculty development.

Modelling Theory

In many situations, operant conditioning is difficult to attain. Advertisers use models to persuade an audience. Someone in the ad is shown being rewarded for the desired behavior. For example, a person who played the lottery (the desired behavior) is shown winning (the reinforcement). Or, someone who uses a particular brand of mouthwash or toothpaste is shown having success in attracting the opposite sex. Advertisers hope that the audience will identify with the model and mimic the behaviors preceding the reinforcement.

Publicizing the rewards of teaching may be a way in which faculty developers could apply reinforcement. By linking a reward (possibly a teaching award) with good teaching and then by publicizing the award winners, an office of faculty development could use both the reinforcement principles and the observational learning principles. The Society for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education in Canada recently published a national newsletter highlighting the 3M Canada Teaching Fellows and describing why they deserved the award. Winners of the Bright Idea Award, which recognizes teaching innovation, receive the award at the annual meeting of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education. The implicit message is: teaching innovators are rewarded for what they do; if you do likewise, you may be rewarded as well.

Message Learning Theory

According to Hovland, Janis, and Kelley (1953), four factors affect message learning: the source, the message, the channel, and the audience. Source attractiveness and credibility play an important role in determining how well a source could convince people. According to Bland and Schmitz (1990), the literature suggests that influential opinion leaders be among the first clients for faculty development activities. These leaders would normally be similar, attractive, and credible to the audience.

People who communicate have three sets of characteristics that influence persuasion: *similarity*, *credibility*, and *attractiveness*. A *similar source* has features in common with the target audience. University professors appear to want to learn from other professors and often balk at learning from non-academics. *Credibility* refers to how believable a source is. Faculty developers without much teaching experience may not be seen as credible, especially if they have not taught for what their colleagues view as "enough" time. *Attractiveness* refers to the set of behaviors that make a person trustworthy and honest. In this culture, avoiding eye contact indicates untrustwor-

thiness. In academic environments, credibility and similarity should play more of a role than attractiveness. However, sources who have difficulty communicating, or who continually use abrasive techniques, may not be effective persuaders.

Workshop leaders, teaching support personnel, and other instructional support staff should be selected and trained to exhibit the behaviors described in the message learning approach. If the source presenting information about faculty development is not seen as credible or similar, persuasion will be inhibited. When publicizing workshops, some key details about the presenter (degrees, awards, experience, and publications) would raise the credibility level. Mentioning classroom teaching and the subject area would also make the potential audience feel some similarity with the presenter, thus increasing the potential for persuasion.

Balance Theory

According to Heider (1958), people like balance, a condition in which a person's attitude towards a subject and opinion of another person or object are similar. If A likes B, but B expresses an attitude with which A disagrees, A must do something to correct this state of imbalance. There are two possibilities: either A changes his or her attitude towards B, or A espouses B's attitude towards the subject. Practically, this theory suggests that if a faculty developer can create a state of imbalance, clients will have to move to redress the imbalance. A practical example might help illustrate this theory. Many professors (clients of faculty developers) appear to believe that they should teach the way they were taught by professors they knew and liked. If their teachers (now senior, tenured full professors) express the belief that they want to change their teaching methods to incorporate research in teaching and learning, this set of events should set up imbalance in the client. According to balance theory, the client must now either change his or her positive sentiment towards the senior member or change the view about teaching. Since attitude to the senior member is unlikely to change, changes in attitudes towards teaching may result.

Impression Management Theory

Impression management theory suggests that people may present an image to others simply to achieve a goal, usually some type of social reward (Goffman, 1959; Arkin, 1981). The social reward may simply be the approval of those present. The image may not be consistent with one's attitude, but can be altered to suit the new situation or the audience being addressed.

The "research-teaching" argument can illustrate this theory quite well. When addressing different audiences, the importance accorded to teaching and research can vary dramatically. This variance can be detected in public speeches, reports, and often in committee and governing-body meetings. When an administration official is speaking to parents of prospective students or alumni, the importance of teaching may take precedence. However, when the same official addresses a government funding agency the institution may be portrayed as primarily a research university. This variance illustrates that a communication source may alter the message to match the views of the audience.

Impression management theory suggests that expressed attitudes may not be accurate reflections of behavior, but may instead be altered to suit the occasion. The developer must be conscious of the audience and situations in which comments about development or teaching are made. If the audience wants to hear something, a professor may be happy to oblige them, ignoring his or her own deeply-held views about the topic. The developer who is aware of such behavior will be cautious in trusting the views expressed in certain situations.

Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Cognitive Dissonance is a state of tension that occurs when we receive two opposite elements of information about a topic important to us (Festinger, 1957). New professors often face much dissonance when trying to balance the various roles (teacher, counsellor, researcher, author) they are expected to perform (Baldwin, 1990). Senior members of the academy will often provide conflicting advice on the weight to place on the roles. Dissonance must be resolved if a person is to return to a state of harmony. Festinger suggests that dissonance can be reduced by eliminating one of the dissonant elements, by getting more information on one of the elements (consonant cognitions), or by changing the value assigned to one of the elements. When reviewing possible roles, new professors could ignore people whose positions are contrary to theirs, seek those whose views are consonant to theirs, or suggest that the differing views do not matter.

If the faculty developer can create dissonance within a client, change may occur. The developer can create dissonance by producing a situation in which the person discovers that two actions, or an action and knowledge, conflict. If the faculty member expresses a commitment to student learning but then neglects to distribute course outlines, the developer may be able to create dissonance by pointing out the discrepancy between research (showing

that course outlines increase learning and satisfaction) and the person's current practice.

In one workshop, the author began by soliciting favorite modes of learning from the participants. None cited listening to lectures as his or her favorite learning mode. The author also presented information on effective means of conveying information based on learning principles (Charles, 1976). In a second exercise, the author asked participants how they taught. The third exercise asked participants to review the results of the two exercises and the learning principles, and then to discuss their conclusions. The lively discussions and justifications gave evidence of cognitive dissonance. This workshop was followed by one on learning to use active learning techniques, the means of reducing the dissonance.

Self-Persuasion Theory

If people think about an issue, attitude change can result (Tesser, 1978). However, attitudes can also remain the same if no new information is present. The trick is to get someone to think about a particular issue and to generate attitudes about it by providing a stimulus that will cause new thinking. Fisch (1990) describes the role of mere thought as an attitude change strategy. He chronicles the events and stimuli that caused him to re-examine how and what he was teaching, resulting in the development of a new approach to teaching. Theory predicts that attitude change resulting from mere thought is much more enduring than attitude change derived from other means. Fisch is probably more committed to his position than others who have attended a workshop and can describe a new model of teaching.

Role-playing appears to be one of the best ways to get people to think about a topic and perhaps even to change their attitude towards it (Janis & King, 1954). The concept of "walk a mile in my shoes" probably illustrates this point best. If I can feel what you feel, then I may change my attitude towards the situation. The role-play which can simulate the real situation can help evoke a change in attitude. For instance, faculty members could be asked to assume various university administration roles to solve a problem. In a recent workshop, the author was placed in a role-playing situation of negotiating a contract from the union side while another group assumed the management role. While in the roles, there was a definite identification with the expectancies of the role as opposed to a person's real position. As a result, staunch union people found themselves acting more like the management people they detested. This change disturbed them more than the outcome.

Role-playing, while used extensively in some disciplines like social work, does not appear to be popular with professional development activities

like those presented at POD conferences or in most of the workshops attended by the author for over 20 years.

Role-playing appears to make people feel that they are persuading themselves. Because attitudes generated from within can be espoused more deeply than those generated from without, faculty developers might be well advised to consider changing some of the modes of presentation in workshops. By leading faculty members to change their own minds, the developer may achieve greater effects than by using techniques that tell them what to think. To be specific, letting a faculty member experience the power of discovery learning or problem-solving may lead to more powerful and enduring attitude change than a lecture on the topic.

Probabilogical Theory

According to some theorists, attitudes are based on beliefs, the information which we have on a topic (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). To change attitudes, therefore, one must change beliefs, eliminate old beliefs, or introduce new beliefs (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). Beliefs form structures that create new beliefs and support attitudes. If structures can be altered, attitude change may follow. McGuire (1960) suggests that beliefs are organized into patterns of logical or hedonistic consistency. Fishbein and Ajzen (1981) specify mathematical relationships between beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors.

To apply these theories, faculty developers would identify beliefs and belief structures through basic research and then try to alter the beliefs. For instance, everyone probably has a set of beliefs about how people learn. Although most personal theories of learning are quite complex, they are probably based on one of the major schools of psychology. The beliefs that make up a personal theory of learning will influence the way a professor performs academic tasks. For instance, a professor who believes in contingency management will arrange rewards and punishments within a course to make sure that the students do the required tasks. Such a person is likely to hold the attitude that if people are not controlled, they will never perform well. By identifying and perhaps altering the beliefs related to how people learn, attitudes and then behavior might undergo change.

Faculty developers would try to identify the relevant beliefs and then try to provide the information and contingencies that would change them. Attitude change may follow the belief change. North and Munson (1990) suggest that providing information about wellness appears to have helped some faculty members examine their state of wellness and perhaps follow the new awareness with action. In a powerful presentation at the 1990 POD conference, North (1990) demonstrated the power of presenting small pieces

of information that challenged the beliefs of participants. Citing research, demonstrating stress reduction through massage, and watching bio-dots, helped people become aware of body messages. Once aware, the decision to act might well follow.

The Foot-in-the-Door Effect

The foot-in-the-door effect suggests that performance of a small favor will be followed by performance of a larger favor later (Freedman & Fraser, 1966). Recently, six offers for magazines arrived in my office. Each asked me to peel off a sticker and place it on a card or punch out a small attractive token and place it in a slot. To subscribe to the magazine, I had to return the card. One recent offer from a computer magazine had three stamps: "YES," "MAYBE," and "NO." The hope is that I would take a small step and then perhaps later, a larger step: subscribe to the magazine.

This theory could be applied in faculty development by asking faculty to make a small commitment to something to get them started. For example, a preregistration form might increase the likelihood that some would actually attend the workshop later. On a larger scale, a small "favor" of attending a single session of interest might lead to instructional innovation. On one campus, the author has discovered that although some faculty are not particularly concerned about their teaching, they are very concerned about conference presentations in front of their peers. While teaching workshops drew 15-20 people, a workshop on presenting papers at conferences drew over 40 registrants. Getting faculty members to commit to improving one conference presentation may help them to improve overall teaching in their classes.

Conclusion

Communicating knowledge about theory and research findings may be insufficient to change professors' behavior, because such knowledge does not necessarily change how they teach or act. Programs that apply attitude change theories should increase the success rate of a faculty development program by encouraging them to change their behavior. Incorporating reinforcement, dissonance creation and reduction, role-playing, and the other techniques will help good programs become excellent ones. Several reference works (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991) can help developers to change professorial behavior while increasing their knowledge.

For some, an ethical issue may be raised by this paper: Should faculty developers be using powerful persuasion techniques, used so well by advertisers, for faculty development? The response has to be that if we plan to commit resources to faculty development, we should do so with all the available tools, as long as the objectives meet ethical and moral standards. Applying attitude change theory can help speed our progress towards our goal of fostering personal, instructional, and institutional vitality.

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University Faculty Attitudes Towards Teaching and Research

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Nationwide, policy makers in higher education are anticipating increasing difficulties over the next two decades in recruiting and retaining faculty in diverse disciplines (Bowen and Schuster, 1986). Faculty have, of course, always been an absolutely fundamental human resource in higher education, but anticipated shortages call attention to our need for understanding more fully how faculty feel and think about their lives as professionals. If we can understand what faculty find most meaningful and what they find most frustrating in their professional lives, perhaps we can create the kinds of institutional support systems and cultures that attract talented people to our colleges and universities, and keep them happily employed once they are hired.

The project to investigate the attitudes of faculty towards teaching and research began in response to frequent anecdotal statements, heard by the authors, that college teachers, even at primarily undergraduate teaching institutions, are far more interested in research than in teaching, and by implication, more interested in data and publication than in students.

Method and Sample

In order to gather more information about faculty attitudes toward teaching and research, we developed a 39 item survey, replicating some items from a major National Education Association survey (1979) and including items that had emerged in our own earlier pilot work.

Choosing to focus intensively on a single state system, we surveyed over 2,000 faculty members at seven state universities in the Minnesota State University System. All seven universities are primarily undergraduate institutions with mission statements that emphasize teaching, but with some expectations that their faculty engage in research in order to be promoted or tenured. Over 1,000 participants responded to the survey, a response rate of about 50%. The respondents closely matched the system parameters in terms of gender and academic rank, allowing us to report several significant findings with considerable confidence.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Thirty-nine questions used in the survey were placed into clusters through the use of factor analysis. The three emergent factors that bear on this paper are (1) interest and satisfaction in research, (2) interest and satisfaction in teaching, and (3) perceived institutional support for teaching.

Teaching and Research

Table 1 presents mean scores and standard deviations for the sample as a whole across the three attitudinal factors.

In general, the respondents reported considerably greater interest and satisfaction in teaching than in research. The respondents' view of the level of institutional support for teaching was not very high, however, indicating some conflict between what the faculty themselves saw as important and what they believed were institutional priorities. It is possible that such a disparity could influence the morale of college teachers.

TABLE 1

Mean scores and standard deviations for full-time faculty, where a mean score of 1 indicates a high level, a score of 3 a neutral level, and a score of 5 a low level in each of the attitudinal factors.

	Factor	*Mean Score*	*Standard Deviation*
1.	Interest and satisfaction in research	2.59	.89
2.	Interest and satisfaction in teaching	1.35	.36
3.	Perceived institutional support for teaching	2.76	.81

Morale

While discussing teachers' attitudes, Bowen and Schuster (1986) describe a "perceptibly weakened morale" among college teachers, which they attribute to adverse trends in compensation and working conditions, a sense of insecurity about the future, and an awareness of the declining status of the profession. In contrast, Armour et al. (1990) report that 91% of their sample of senior faculty say that they are very or somewhat satisfied with their faculty careers. The National Education Association (1979) reported that an important minority of faculty were experiencing low morale. We patterned three of our questions after items in the National Education Association survey. Responses to those questions are found in Table 2.

There is moderate agreement among faculty that their morale is very high as measured by item 32. This is a positive finding. The high standard deviation, however, suggests a high degree of variability of response. Some faculty strongly agree with the statement, but almost as many strongly disagree. In other words, using these specific questions we did not find the low degree of morale that Bowen and Schuster (1986) describe, but we did find the important minority of faculty experiencing low morale that the National Education Association (1979) survey reports.

Faculty on the whole see their own morale as higher than others', as measured by item 33. Although this sort of finding is not unusual in opinion questionnaires (for example, people in general often see themselves as happier than others), and although the National Education Association

TABLE 2

Mean scores and standard deviations for responses to three faculty morale questions, where a mean score of 1 indicates a high level of agreement, a score of 3 a neutral level, and a score of 5 a low level of agreement.

	Item	*Mean Score*	*Standard Deviation*
32.	My morale is very high	2.40	1.21
33.	The morale of other faculty at my institution seems to be very high.	3.02	1.05
34.	Compared with that of five years ago, the morale of other faculty at my institution seems to be very high.	3.08	1.10

(1979) survey reports similar findings, these results do not require the caveat that the sample for this survey was produced by self-selection, and thus may reflect a higher morale level among faculty who chose to fill out the questionnaire than among faculty who did not.

The picture is further complicated by the fact that in addition to the questions discussed above, we obtained a more sophisticated measure of faculty morale by using a cluster of items that included additional faculty opinions on matters such as committee work, bureaucratic procedures, chances for career development, and enthusiasm about teaching. The mean response to our faculty morale cluster was 3.08 on a scale of one to five, with a standard deviation of .73. This more inclusive score suggests that faculty morale is only moderately high. The reduced score for morale probably results from the inclusion of attitudes towards non-teaching activities as well as towards teaching activities.

In any case, these results do suggest a lowering of perceived morale compared to five years ago, as measured by item 34. Because of the cross-sectional nature of this study, it is difficult to say whether this lowering of morale will be a continuing trend. Bowen and Schuster (1986) found that about 44 percent of their sampled faculty saw a decline in morale over the past "five or ten years," and found the decline stronger among comprehensive colleges and universities, so declining morale may be an issue of some importance.

Inferential Statistics

We conducted a series of one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests and t-tests to compare each of our attitudinal factors with a number of demographic group factors, trying to find differences in how the demographic groups responded. The demographic groups included were: current academic rank, age, age when current rank was achieved, gender, and full- or part-time status.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and t-tests are both designed to estimate the likelihood that differences found could be due to chance alone. Differences expected to happen by chance no more than five percent of the time are, by convention, referred to as significant at the .05 level. Smaller differences are reported as not significant or are not reported. T-tests were used when there were only two demographic possibilities within a category (male or female, full- or part-time), and ANOVA was used when there were multiple demographic possibilities within a category.

Table 3 shows which comparisons between attitudinal factors and demographic groups were found to result in overall differences within the demo-

graphic groups significant at or above the .05 level. The table indicates where significant differences were found within some demographic groupings with regard to some attitudinal factors, but does not indicate the direction of the differences. This table refers to ANOVA findings, so all of this data will require further investigation, either by looking at the direction of the differences or by subsequent, more precise, testing.

The statistical treatment described so far, as mentioned earlier, needs to be augmented. While differences found through t-tests are clear enough, an overall finding of $p < .05$ determined by ANOVA suggests that there are differences within the various elements of the demographic grouping, but does not say which of the elements are significantly different from which other elements within the demographic grouping. Tests called post-tests are used for this purpose. We chose to use Tukey's post-test, given its power in situations of unequal N's. Breaking a larger overall grouping into smaller ones always reduces the power of a statistical measure. It is possible to find overall differences significant, but to be unable to specify, within an acceptable level of probability, significant differences within the smaller units.

Studied relationships between our attitudinal factors and the demographic groupings that appear to interact with them are described below.

Interest and Satisfaction in Research

By rank: We found overall differences to be significant at the $p < .0001$ level. Tukey's post-test showed that assistant professors with three years or less of full time teaching experience expressed more interest and satisfaction in research than all other faculty, and that those at the rank of instructor expressed less interest and satisfaction in research than all other faculty. Faculty at other ranks did not significantly differ from one another.

By age: We found overall differences to be significant at the $p < .0001$ level. Tukey's post-test showed that faculty who are between the ages of

TABLE 3

Comparisons between attitudinal factors and demographic groups resulting in overall differences significant at or above the .05 level.

	Attitudinal Factor	*Demographic Group*
1.	Interest and satisfaction in research	faculty rank & age
2.	Interest and satisfaction in teaching	faculty rank & age
3.	Perceived institutional support for teaching	faculty rank

thirty and forty report significantly more interest and satisfaction in research than do faculty who are older than sixty or younger than thirty. The latter two groups do not differ from one another to a significant degree. All other age groups fall somewhere in the middle.

Interest and Satisfaction in Teaching

By rank: We found overall differences to be significant at the $p < .01$ level. Tukey's post-test showed that full professors with five years or fewer until retirement expressed more interest and satisfaction in teaching than all other ranks, which did not differ from one another significantly, although, in general, faculty at higher ranks showed more interest and satisfaction in teaching than did faculty at lower ranks.

By age: Although we found overall differences at the $p < .001$ level among the age groupings studied, the pattern that emerged via post-test was not clear enough to rank order the age groupings in a meaningful way.

Perceived Institutional Support for Teaching

By rank: Although we found overall differences significant at the $p < .05$ level among the faculty ranks, the pattern that emerged via post-test was not clear enough to compare the separate faculty ranks in a uniformly linear way. In general, however, there is a progression of less perceived institutional support for teaching as one moves up the ranks.

Discussion

Young faculty at the rank of instructor show little interest in research, while young assistant professors report significantly more interest and satisfaction in research than do any other faculty groups. Since those at the rank of instructor only very rarely have terminal degrees, engaging in research may be a low personal and job priority for teachers at that rank. Since most Ph.D. faculty within the Minnesota system are hired at the assistant professor level, an interesting and plausible interpretation of this finding is that our newest Ph.D. faculty have the most interest in research. Either we have recently begun hiring faculty with more interest in research or else faculty lose some of that interest after teaching within the system for a while. Possibly both of these explanations are true.

This survey suggests considerable disagreement among faculty about the values inherent in the common formulation of teaching and research as polar opposites. The evolution of new and imaginative definitions about what constitute legitimate scholarship and research (see Boyer, 1991) may provide

opportunities for faculty development initiatives that can ensure that such value conflicts are at least productive.

Our finding that faculty at higher ranks expressed somewhat more interest and satisfaction in teaching is of particular interest when it is noted that professors near retirement had the highest interest and satisfaction in teaching. This is unusual in that similar findings are not reported in the national literature (Baldwin and Blackburn, 1981; Lee and Field, 1987; Lowe and Anderson, 1980). A follow-up study of senior faculty near retirement would be appropriate. The relatively small degree of differences among groups of faculty on this factor is not surprising. It is important to remember that most faculty within the Minnesota State University System expressed an extremely high degree of interest and satisfaction in teaching. Their score on this factor was, in fact, their highest score. Extremely high scores for most faculty reduce the likelihood of finding significant differences among groups of faculty.

It is unfortunate that the slight increase in interest in teaching we found as one moves up the ranks parallels a slight decrease in perceptions of institutional support for teaching. Several of the institutions in our sample focused their teaching improvement programs on junior faculty. Failing to include senior faculty in faculty development programs not only reduces senior faculty members' opportunities to improve, but also prevents them from being participant role models to junior faculty and resources for junior faculty within the faculty improvement programs. Additionally, since lowered morale may be an emerging problem for faculty, senior faculty need to be a part of faculty development programs specifically aimed at morale issues.

Conclusion

Chief among our findings is that faculty at public undergraduate institutions are extremely interested in and derive great satisfaction from teaching. They are considerably less enthusiastic, however, and also more divided, with regard to their attitudes toward research. Despite their enthusiasm, however, most faculty report only moderate institutional support for teaching and may perceive a schism between their interests in teaching and the interests of their institutions. These results may be typical of faculty at many undergraduate teaching institutions, and suggest that increased attention be given to institutional support for teaching. Institutions should consider increasing support for teaching through workshops and other visible means. While systematic support for teaching will be useful for junior faculty, it is especially important to provide institutional support for mid-career faculty

who may tend to lose enthusiasm as their careers mature. The high levels of commitment to teaching by faculty near retirement does suggest, however, that the latter group may constitute more of a resource than previously realized. Programs using senior faculty as presenters and mentors would be a logical response.

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Selected Characteristics of New Faculty: Implications for Faculty Development

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Faculty new to The Ohio State University take part in a New Faculty Orientation Program. Prior to the 1990 orientation, The Center for Teaching Excellence (CTE) surveyed the new faculty members as part of our continuing faculty development effort. The survey questionnaire sought to acquire data on new faculty expectations and needs, with emphasis on background information, concerns about professional well-being, and specific expectations about support for their teaching. The survey considered several variables and their interactions: (a) personal characteristics, such as age and gender; and (b) professional characteristics, such as predicted or anticipated percentage of total appointment designated for teaching, advising responsibilities, and previous teaching experience.

This paper reviews the method of the study and summarizes the findings of the new faculty survey. One should note that, while these findings are applicable to similar research universities, they are not as generalizable to all college and university settings, although other studies suggest there are similar themes across a variety of academic environments (Sorcinelli, 1988; Turner & Boice, 1987; Fink, 1984; Baldwin & Blackburn, 1981). The implications of this study for faculty development are considered with the hope that the findings can benefit other faculty development programs, particularly at other research universities.

Method and Sample Characteristics

The sample surveyed here consisted of 89 new faculty hired between the months of January and July of 1990. The response rate to the survey was 45.6%. The majority of these new faculty (67%) have PhD degrees, with 22% holding professional degrees (e.g., MD, DVM) and the remainder (11%) having master's degrees (e.g., MA, MSW). The average age of the respondents was approximately 33 (range=below 30 to 50 and over). Sixty-one percent were male; 39% were female. Sixty-six percent were appointed in tenure-track positions, 24% to lecturer positions, and 10% were hired with tenure. This sample was heterogeneous with regard to discipline, with nearly all colleges represented.

Findings

The data were divided into two categories: (a) background information characteristics and (b) expectations and concerns. Data were then analyzed using StatWorks for any correlations and significant differences among the variables. StatWorks is a basic statistical software package that offers data sorting and data transformation. The statistical software of this program permits descriptive statistics, cross tabulation of data, t-test, correlation of data, simple and multiple regression of data, and analysis of variance.

Background Information Characteristics

Background information characteristics of the study revealed that 87.5% of the 89 new faculty respondents had previous teaching experience. However, of this 87.5%, only 37% had previous training for teaching, such as formal coursework on teaching, workshops, reading, and internships. One can only infer from this percentage that institutions are not clear on how they place teaching responsibilities. Twenty-five percent indicated that the percentage of total appointment time for teaching was specified. Further analysis of the data indicates a positive correlation (.58) between previous teaching experience and percentage of total appointment time specified for teaching. A perfect correlation (1.00) was found between previous teaching experience and tenure, which strongly suggests that tenure is offered only to new faculty who come from traditional teaching backgrounds, and that teaching plays a vital part in achieving tenure. While there was no significant difference between gender and having tenure, a negative correlation (.56) was found between female faculty members and being on tenure track. This survey also showed that the number of female faculty members that were hired with

tenure was disproportionately low compared to male faculty members hired with tenure. Of the 39% of new female faculty members hired (34), only one was hired with tenure, 22 were not on tenure track, and the remaining 11 were on tenure track.

This study found that 44.4% of the faculty survey respondents had no previous teaching experience as a teaching assistant at a four-year college or university, 76.7% had no previous teaching experience as a tenure-track faculty member at a four-year college or university, and 54.6% had no previous teaching experience either in an adjunct or nontenure position at a four-year college or university. Data pertaining to previous training for teaching revealed that 62.5% of the new faculty who responded to the survey reported having no formal coursework on teaching, and 51.2% had no training in the form of a workshop. This would suggest that teaching is not being looked at seriously as a worthy subject of study among many institutions of higher learning.

Expectations and Concerns

What concerns, if any, do you have about your teaching or advising responsibilities? Many new faculty members expressed concern about the pressure of writing proposals and obtaining grants interfering with their teaching and advising responsibilities. As one assistant professor noted:

> I am concerned that I will bend to the pressure of publishing and lose interest in teaching. Even those faculty who have a high commitment to teaching will ultimately lose interest if incentives in the form of raises and promotion lie elsewhere.

Respondents also expressed concern about the impersonal nature of large-class instruction, and the expectation to teach and adjust to these large classes in addition to finding how to acquire and develop new teaching skills. Further, they shared concerns regarding freedom to teach what faculty felt was important as well as learning effective approaches to designing a new course. Anticipating their advisory role and being unfamiliar with Ohio State rules and policies, a few of the new faculty were a bit apprehensive about advising students.

What are your expectations regarding the satisfactions connected with being a faculty member? The respondents listed several areas of satisfaction connected with being a faculty member. For the most part, these areas were teaching and contact with students. Many expressed satisfaction in watching students learn and being challenged to stretch their own learning with new ideas.

> Probably the greatest satisfaction is knowing that one had kindled the interest of curiosity in a student where little or none was obvious before.

Other areas of anticipated satisfaction in being a faculty member that were reported include: having a secure job and income, being surrounded by professional colleagues and eager students, having a successful record of publication and funding, having freedom in work hours and location, and maintaining contact with colleagues nationally.

What are your expectations regarding the frustrations you will experience as a faculty member? Many respondents expected problems with time management and being "pulled" in too many directions—wearing the teacher, researcher, and service hats. Consistent with other findings (Sorcinelli, 1988), they also antitipated fustration with the administration concerning curriculum development, conflicting pressures of research versus teaching, and, in particular, not gaining recognition for teaching and professional service during tenure hearings. Another assistant professor stated:

> I feel totally clueless about how to do anything—start a course, write a proposal, buy equipment, choose a graduate student, you name it. Training is needed for academic growth.

New faculty respondents also anticipated frustrations about not having enough resources for the classroom, not having enough time to do everything that needs to be done, dealing with students who are difficult to motivate, finding a teaching and research balance, being new to the field, and balancing commitments at work and at home.

What experiences thus far have been most helpful in getting you ready to begin your role as a faculty member? Prior experiences in teaching in other capacities, such as being a teaching assistant, being an adjunct professor, or being a tenure-track faculty member provided positive experiences for some faculty members in preparation for their new positions. However, quite a number of the survey respondents stated that the new faculty orientation was the first opportunity presented to them for expanding their professional capabilities.

When asked how the university can further help new faculty as they begin their responsibilities, many new faculty members requested that the Center for Teaching Excellence sponsor quarterly seminars on topics pertinent to research and teaching. Some of the respondents even went a step further to suggest establishing a mentoring program, supervising their classroom teaching, holding presentations throughout the year on ways to improve instruction, and circulating descriptive literature about available teaching

resources (e.g., human, technical, and audiovisual support). One visiting assistant professor even boldly suggested having voluntary sessions for new professors at which they could give lectures to one another and receive peer feedback. Another assistant professor wrote:

> In graduate school, I had a network of support, but now I feel like I'm in this alone.

Discussion and Implications for Faculty Development

This study took a broad look at the background information characteristics and concerns and expectations of new faculty, as reported in a survey. It was conducted based on the assumption that the factor most predictive of success in faculty development is depth of knowledge about faculty. In other words, information about major faculty characteristics—their concerns, talents, and deficiencies—is fundamental to an effective program of professional growth (Blackburn, Behmyer, & Hall, 1978; Wergin, Mason, & Munson, 1976). The findings indicate that faculty see the beneficial effects of opportunities to further their professional growth. In general, results from the survey suggest that many of the new faculty members support the statement that effective time management and excellence in teaching are essential.

New faculty arrive with various experiences, skills, and knowledge. Some are experienced educators; others have never been in a classroom in the role of instructor (Miami-Dade Community College, 1989). As indicated from this survey, approximately half can be expected to have had previous employment experience in other areas of the country. This diversity, and the fact that new faculty are appointed to their positions at different times during the year, mandate that faculty and instructional development offices provide resources for individualized guidance and support. As one professor remarked in this survey, there is a need for flexibility so that attention to various needs can create a climate conducive to maximum faculty development and performance. In planning faculty development programs to accommodate diversity within new faculty, it is important to allow for a wide range of opportunities. Programs such as new faculty orientation, therefore, should include activities that support faculty in various stages of their professional careers.

Some of the findings from this study are consistent with those of Baldwin and Blackburn (1981), in that faculty characteristics, expectations, and

concerns are much broader than just assistance with teaching. Faculty development programs now need to broaden their focus to include many of the professional, organizational, and developmental concerns of new faculty. Many of the new faculty anticipated concerns about the campus administration. There needs to be a strong relationship between key campus administrators and faculty development offices to make administrators more aware and understanding of the relevant issues involved in their role in developing a productive faculty. Experiences at our campus have shown that this relationship is vital in promoting teaching excellence.

It is clear that faculty new to the university need to feel welcome, to develop collegial relationships and a sense of belonging, and to identify with the college or university. This suggests certain roles that faculty and instructional development staff need to assume in order to be particularly effective. Perhaps a process is needed whereby faculty mentors or associates are selected, trained, and assigned to new faculty to provide support during the first year of appointment.

From the literature base and knowledge gained from this survey, one may infer that gaining information about background characteristics, expectations, and concerns will further help in the instructional development efforts and needs of some faculty. It can help the instructional development staff determine what programs and initiatives would provide the greatest benefit in faculty development. A better understanding of these characteristics is the beginning of awareness in developing strategies designed to enhance a faculty member's knowledge and skills. Many university campuses do a marginal job of aggregating and analyzing information about their new faculty. For example, the information gathered from this survey can help to ascertain the areas in which new faculty feel more at ease and in what aspects they desire help. This would serve to illustrate the need for faculty development specialists to know more about their clientele.

It is important to recognize the significance of continuing faculty development. Strong faculty development programs are crucial to effective teaching at research universities. Our orientation for faculty new to The Ohio State University recently has included attempts to determine new faculty needs and expectations. Our continuing and future faculty development programs can be strengthened and enhanced through incorporation of these findings into our program implementation and program development. Faculty development specialists can play key roles in assisting faculty to cultivate and sustain vital teaching careers by assuming a more active role in assessment of development efforts. A needs assessment for faculty new to the university

must be supported with mentor programs, clear and careful resource development and promotion, and constant evaluation and modification of faculty development programs. Intake assessment and subsequent follow-up provide critical support for new faculty at research institutions.

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Starting Out: Experiences of New Faculty at a Teaching University

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Most faculty find their first years at an institution stimulating but stressful. Little is known about how faculty cope during this critical time in their lives or what kinds of institutional support would be most useful to them. Within the last ten years, however, new faculty have come increasingly under study. Fink (1984) interviewed 83 first-year geography faculty and pinpointed six factors that significantly affected both their performance and their professional satisfaction: the type of contract they had, the completion of their dissertations, the size of their initial teaching load, the strength of their identification with the institution, the degree to which it was possible for them to find companionship with colleagues, and the extent to which they could relate successfully to students.

In 1985, Turner and Boice (1987) began a longitudinal study of all newly hired faculty at a large, commuter, teaching-oriented university. Interviews with an initial sample of 66 new faculty indicated these faculty were experiencing significant job-related stress growing out of a lack of anticipated collegiality, less than satisfactory student evaluations of their teaching, and anxiety about meeting minimal requirements of scholarly activity. By 1988, 185 new faculty had participated in this study. Analysis of the cumulative data on collegiality (Boice, in press) revealed that the new faculty felt neglected and overworked for a surprisingly long period of time, taking up to four years before experiencing satisfactory levels of job comfort; that faculty, like corporate employees, became more autonomous and less affiliative with age; and that the ease with which new faculty adjusted appeared to be related to the extent to which they were resilient when faced with

frustrations, had insight into their situations, and identified with their institution.

Sorcinelli (1988) conducted a study of 54 new faculty at a large research-oriented university. She found that although the majority of the new faculty were enthusiastic about their work and the opportunities it provided, their generally high level of morale was tempered with concerns about heavy workloads, lack of collegiality, low levels of scholarly productivity, incongruities between the demands of teaching and the reward structure, inequities in resource allocation, and the balancing of work and personal life.

Although informative and thought-provoking, the value of these studies is limited by their being restricted to specific groups, single campuses, and/or one year of inquiry. More recent works are beginning to overcome these shortcomings. One study of approximately 200 new faculty as teachers (Boice, 1991b) analyzes data gathered on two campuses over a period of three years. Boice determined that new faculty, both those on a teaching campus and at a research institution, were slow to develop personally satisfying and effective teaching styles. Fearful of receiving poor student evaluations, they taught cautiously and defensively, limiting themselves to conservative teaching strategies and over-preparing for lectures at the expense of other professional activities. Tending to blame external factors for their problems, the new faculty were unlikely to seek help. Those who did, however, showed measurable improvements in job satisfaction, student evaluations, and overall productivity.

A companion study of new faculty as scholarly writers (Boice, 1991a) is based on nine years of work with over 325 new faculty on three campuses. It shows that the majority of new faculty at both teaching and research institutions spend significantly more time preparing for their classes than they do engaging in scholarly writing, putting off writing until they feel their teaching is under control; that when they do write, they tend to work in counter-productive binges; and that they publish fewer manuscripts than the number expected for tenure. Study of the new faculty who prove to be successful as publishers indicates that they display a positive attitude toward their students, colleagues, and work; become members of active collegial networks; and learn to balance the time they spend on teaching-related activities and scholarship.

These longitudinal, cross-campus studies provide a more comprehensive view of the initial stage of an academic career than was previously available. The investigations, however, continue to be somewhat limited in scope. Researchers need to broaden further their inquiries to include new faculty at other types of institutions not yet studied if they are to differentiate with

confidence between general characteristics and idiosyncratic patterns on individual campuses.

This report describes the first semester of a longitudinal study of new faculty at a comprehensive, residential, coeducational state university that enrolls approximately 11,500 students, most of whom are traditional students between 18 and 22 years of age. The purpose of the study is to provide information of both practical and theoretical value. On one level it seeks to discover how the new faculty at a particular university are faring in terms of establishing collegial relationships, developing effective teaching styles, and becoming productive scholars, so that the institution may better support their efforts to master the professorial role. On another level it attempts to augment the literature on faculty career patterns by comparing faculty at a residential, teaching university with their colleagues at other types of institutions.

Methods

Subjects

The subjects in this study were all new faculty hired to fill full-time, tenure-track positions at a medium-sized, comprehensive state university. Due to a budget crisis at the institution in which the inquiry was initiated, only 12 such faculty were hired for fall 1990—appoximately one-third the usual number. Ten of the new faculty agreed to participate in the study; one maintained he was too busy to do so; and another had unresolvable concerns about confidentiality. Of the 10 who agreed to participate, four had three or more years of full-time teaching experience at other campuses, five had taught less than two years since receiving their doctorates, and one was beginning a teaching career after having worked in business. In this report, the new faculty with three or more years of experience will be referred to as "experienced"; the others will be grouped together and referred to as "inexperienced."

The new faculty represented a wide range of disciplines from all colleges on campus. Five of the six inexperienced faculty were women. Three of the four experienced faculty were men. Five of the inexperienced and three of the experienced new faculty were hired at the assistant professor level. One inexperienced new person, the individual with the business background, and one person with prior teaching experience, were hired as associate professors. None was hired with tenure.

Interview Protocol

The new faculty in this study were interviewed during fall 1990 to determine how they were functioning as colleagues, teachers, and researchers and how their first semester experiences on campus compared with those of their peers at other institutions.

Initial contact was made with each new faculty member by letter: the nature of the study was described, measures to ensure confidentiality were explained, and the faculty member's assistance was requested. The researcher then set up appointments by telephone and sent confirmation letters. Each interview was held in the faculty member's office and lasted approximately one hour.

The interview protocol was designed to elicit both qualitative and quantitative data.* Qualitative data were collected with open-ended questions ("How does this campus differ from the others you have been on?"). Quantitative data were gathered through the use of questions asking the faculty either to specify numbers of things ("How many hours do you typically spend per week writing manuscripts for publication?") or to rate their experiences using a 10-point Likert scale ranging from a low of 1 to a high of 10 ("Rate yourself as a teacher compared to your peers"). Depending upon the individual faculty member's interests, any question could prove to be the springboard for a more in-depth discussion. The interviews did, in fact, tend to be conversational rather than "question and answer" in style.

Data Analysis

The qualitative data collected during these interviews were categorized according to theme and tone to reveal common areas of concern and patterns of behavior. Medians and percentages were computed for the quantitative responses to determine relative significance and to facilitate comparison. In this paper, all reported ratings are the medians of the responses given by the new faculty in answer to questions requiring the use of the Likert scale.

The data gathered in this present study were analyzed in two contexts. From an intra-institutional perspective, the interview questions sought to determine how successful the new faculty were at establishing collegial relations, developing effective teaching styles, and becoming productive scholars. Similarities and differences between the responses of inexperienced and experienced faculty at the university were noted.

*Copies of the interview instrument may be obtained from the author.

From an inter-institutional perspective, the interviews elicited information that allowed comparisons to be made between the faculty at this university and those at previously studied institutions (Boice, in press, 1991a, 1991b; Boice & Turner, 1989; Fink, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1988; Turner & Boice, 1987). In some cases (Fink, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1988), such comparisons could only be general in nature given the different research designs used in the various studies. However, since the interview format in the present study was essentially the same as that used by Boice (1991b), it was possible to draw specific analogies between the new faculty in his samples and those interviewed in this study.

Results

Workloads

There was considerable variety in the number of courses each new faculty member was teaching during his or her first semester on campus. Although the standard teaching load is 12 credit hours per semester, the actual number of hours the new faculty had been assigned ranged from 6 to 12. The median number of hours assigned the inexperienced new faculty was 8.5; experienced new faculty were assigned a median of 9 hours. Release time, when granted, was usually for specific duties such as supervision of student teachers and administration of departmental programs; it was not routinely given due to new faculty status although some departments did arrange for new faculty to have reduced loads their first semester.

Table 1 gives the median number of hours the new faculty estimated they spent per workweek on various professional activities. As the table indicates, the new faculty's schedules were dominated by teaching and teaching-related activities: lecture preparation, grading, and contact with students outside of class. The latter included academic advising, working with student clubs and organizations, and informal counseling of students having personal or course-related problems. Little time was spent on scholarly writing, even less on such activities as reading, research, and grant-writing.

When asked to rate their current level of busyness, inexperienced new faculty gave a rating of 8; experienced new faculty, of 8.5. Although these ratings were high, 80% of the new faculty described some previous time in their lives as having been clearly more stressful. These included such situations as working part time while trying to finish a dissertation, having to meet the externally imposed deadlines of administrative jobs, and past events in their personal lives like having a new baby and a new job at the

same time. Nonetheless, the new faculty were frustrated by the lack of time. They could not do all the course preparation they felt was necessary; they greeted questions on how much time they were spending on scholarly work with laughs; and they were concerned about not having time to meet people and make friends. For example, one faculty member said she had turned down a number of invitations to go out to lunch because she was "just too busy."

Collegial Support

The new faculty reported being quite satisfied with the collegial support they had found on campus so far. None of the new faculty felt ignored or isolated. When asked to rate the quality of support they were getting on campus, 33% of the inexperienced new faculty and 75% of the experienced ones reported receiving high levels of overall collegial support, giving a rating of 8 or above. Even those reporting lower levels of collegiality were not dissatisfied; all the remaining new faculty gave a rating of 7 when asked to evaluate the quality of collegial support they were receiving.

The new faculty estimated that over half of their collegial interactions involved small talk and gossip about department and university politics. Almost one third, however, centered around teaching. Sixty-seven percent of the inexperienced new faculty said they were part of a network that discussed teaching; 75% percent of the experienced new hires said they were. These networks were all departmentally based. Typical comments made during the interviews were: "Teaching is the main topic of discussion in my

TABLE 1
Median Faculty Estimates of Number of Hours Spent per Workweek on Professional Activities

Academic Activity	*Background of New Faculty*	
	Inexperienced	*Experienced*
Teaching:	8.50	9.00
Lecture preparation:	14.00	9.00
Grading:	7.00	5.00
Student contact:	6.00	9.50
Reading:	2.00	1.25
Research:	.50	2.00
Grants:	.50	.25
Writing:	2.25	6.50

department"; "My whole department commonly talks about teaching"; "Teaching is job number one—there's lots of discussion about it in the department." The new faculty also frequently described themselves as collaborating in teaching with senior colleagues, 67% of the inexperienced new faculty and 100% of the experienced ones saying they were doing so.

To the disappointment of most of the new faculty, collegial interactions were unlikely to focus on topics relating to research. The new faculty often mentioned that no one on campus shared their particular research interests. New and senior faculty rarely talked about scholarly work; new faculty occasionally did so among themselves. Thirty-three percent of the inexperienced and 50% of the experienced new faculty could describe a network for discussing research, scholarship, and writing. However, while the teaching networks were all departmentally based, faculty often had to go farther afield to find people with whom to discuss research activities. One of the research networks mentioned was a Women's Studies group, another was a college research group that one joined by invitation only; the new faculty member had not been asked to participate. New faculty were also less likely to be collaborating with senior faculty in research than in teaching. Only 17% of the inexperienced and 67% of the experienced new faculty reported being engaged in some collaborative research or writing project.

High levels of collegial support appeared significantly more desirable to the inexperienced new faculty than to their experienced newly hired colleagues. When asked to rate their own need for collegiality, 67% of the faculty new to academe rated it as being important to them (a rating of 7 or above), only 25% of those with previous experience did so.

The new faculty seemed relatively proactive and effective in establishing collegial interactions. All had substantive weekly interactions with at least three people in their departments. Eighty-three percent of the inexperienced and 50% of the experienced new faculty said they had sought out senior faculty for advice. One inexperienced new faculty member noted that no one had "butted into her business," but that she had been the one to ask for suggestions on how to handle problems she was having. She felt this was appropriate. All but one of the new faculty had campus colleagues with whom they pursued off-campus friendships.

Teaching

As previously noted, all the new faculty spent the majority of their workweeks engaged in teaching and teaching-related activities. During the interviews they were asked to label their teaching styles as (1) a "lecturer/fact and principles" style in which the teacher lectures in order to explain

important facts and principles; (2) a "lecturer/interactive" style in which the teacher lectures but elicits significant student interaction; or (3) a "facilitator/class discussion" style in which the teacher serves as a facilitator of class discussions. The new faculty most often described their teaching styles as "lecturer/interactive," 83% of the inexperienced and 25% of the experienced new faculty doing so. None of the inexperienced, but 25% of the experienced, new faculty reported using a "facilitator/class discussion" style of teaching. The remaining new faculty all said their subject areas demanded that they devote their time to imparting facts and principles to their students.

All the new faculty were able to respond quickly to questions about their strengths and weaknesses as teachers and to describe what plans they had to change how they were handling their classes. New teachers most commonly noted as strengths their enthusiasm and enjoyment of teaching; as weaknesses, their lack of experience and tendency to be disorganized. The new faculty with teaching experience stressed their skill at organizing and presenting their subjects. The weaknesses they described were varied, but all expressed concern about failing to engage students in the most productive manner. For example, one experienced faculty member said, "I mistake teaching for just getting out information. I'm torn between this and having students learn to think."

The new faculty all expressed a desire to excel at teaching and believed that good teaching was expected of them. When asked to rate the level of campus pressure they felt to succeed as teachers, inexperienced faculty gave a rating of 7, experienced faculty of 8. When asked to consider the level of their own desire to do well in this area, inexperienced faculty gave a rating of 9, experienced ones of 8.25.

Given these figures, it is not surprising that every new faculty member talked at length about plans to improve his or her teaching. Both inexperienced and experienced teachers most frequently described wanting to change their teaching methods to be more interactive. Following this, they had plans to modify the content of their courses and, occasionally, to completely redesign them.

In discussing their plans to improve their teaching, the new faculty, especially those without prior teaching experience, often mentioned consulting senior colleagues. Fifty percent of the inexperienced new teachers said they were modeling themselves after colleagues in their departments, and 83% had asked senior faculty for advice on their teaching. As one might expect, these percentages were lower for the experienced new hires: 25% reported modeling themselves after colleagues, 50% had asked for teaching-related advice.

None of the the new faculty had received any feedback on their teaching. Although one third of the inexperienced and one half of the experienced new faculty had participated in peer reviews of teaching at other institutions, none had had their teaching evaluated by colleagues on their new campus. Lack of time, worries about imposing on others, and feelings of self-consciousness were all given as reasons for not requesting such collegial sharing. Formal student evaluations were still weeks away and no one had considered designing and using their own in-course evaluations. Most faculty believed they could gauge how their courses were going by noting how their students behaved in class.

Scholarly Writing

No faculty member reported spending a significant percentage of his or her workweek engaged in research or scholarly writing. Although one or two of the new faculty mentioned wanting to devote more time to writing in the future, none expressed particular anxiety about their current level of activity or felt that they had a significant problem with writing blocks. When asked to compare the amount of pressure they felt from their colleagues to publish with their own internal desire to do so, inexperienced new faculty gave a moderate rating of 5.5 for the amount of campus pressure they experienced, and a fairly high rating of 7.5 for the amount of internal pressure they felt. Experienced faculty rated the levels of pressure at 2.5 and 10, respectively.

Inexperienced new faculty had published a median of 1.5 articles before arriving on campus; their experienced new colleagues had published 5.5. The inexperienced new faculty hoped to publish between one and two articles per year and felt fairly confident of their ability to do so, giving a rating of 7 to the question of how realistic their publication plans were. In fact, 67% had manuscripts they expected to have published during the fall semester. The remaining 33% all had articles they planned to complete and submit to refereed outlets within the next several months. These papers were all based on work in progress when the faculty came to campus.

The experienced new faculty were both somewhat more ambitious and less confident than their inexperienced peers; they hoped to publish a median of two articles per year and rated their chances of doing so at 6.5. All the experienced faculty had manuscripts they expected to have published during the fall semester; all also had articles or books they hoped to complete and submit in the near future.

The new faculty were not readily able to discuss their strengths and weaknesses as writers. "Well, I'm not sure," was often the first response. After reflection, most of the new faculty decided that their main strength as

writers was their ability to be clear and well-organized. Although expressed in various ways, their perceived weaknesses tended to center around not being sufficiently disciplined: "I'm not systematic"; "I only work in binges"; "I don't want to revise."

The new faculty had a long list of strategies they used to help themselves write. Experienced new faculty most often mentioned the importance of getting something down on paper first and then doing extensive revisions. Inexperienced faculty most often mentioned (and mentioned with equal frequency) scheduling time to write, thoroughly planning and outlining papers, and being deadline driven. The desirability of having lengthy periods of time in which to write went almost without saying. Most of the new faculty were planning to write during their fall and Christmas vacations.

The new faculty often mentioned they had been hired with the expectation that they would be engaged in more scholarly work than their senior colleagues. Although no one thought that he or she was expected to be solely a researcher, all of the experienced and 50% of the inexperienced new faculty believed they had been hired to give equal weight to research and teaching activities. Although this campus has instruction as its primary mission, with

TABLE 2

Percentage of New Faculty Indicating Primary Interest in Teaching or in Research and Their Perceptions of Senior Faculty Preferences

Area of Primary Interest Faculty Group	*Background of New Faculty*	
	Inexperienced	*Experienced*
Teaching		
New faculty	33% (N=2)	0%
Senior faculty	50% (N=3)	75% (N=3)
Research		
New faculty	17% (N=1)	25% (N=1)
Senior faculty	0%	0%
Equal interest		
New faculty	50% (N=3)	75% (N=3)
Senior faculty	33% (N=2)	0%
Interests vary		
New faculty		
Senior faculty	17% (N=2)	25% (N=1)

scholarship playing a complementary role, none of the experienced and only 33% of the inexperienced new faculty said they were primarily interested in teaching. As Table 2 reveals, the new faculty perceived themselves as being different from their senior colleagues in this respect: 50% of the inexperienced and 75% of the experienced new faculty believed that the senior faculty were primarily interested in instruction.

The new faculty were uniformly unclear about departmental expectations for promotion and tenure. They were unsure how much publication was expected of them and how Departmental Personnel Committees would evaluate and weigh teaching activities and scholarly work. Table 3 is a comparison of the percentage of new faculty who believed DPCs should either emphasize teaching or research and their perceptions of what DPCs actually did consider to be most important. As the table shows, most new faculty thought that teaching and research should be given equal consideration in retention, tenure, and promotion decisions, but few believed this was likely to occur. When asked what they thought DPCs would value most when making promotion and tenure decisions, new faculty usually expressed befuddlement: "I don't know. I asked people and got mixed messages"; "I would like to know the answer to that question"; "I wish I knew. You have

TABLE 3

Percentage of New Faculty Believing DPCs Should Emphasize Teaching or Research and Their Perceptions of What Is Emphasized

	Background of New Faculty	
Area of Emphasis	*Inexperienced*	*Experienced*
Teaching		
Ideal DPCs	33% (N=2)	25% (N=1)
Real DPCs	33% (N=2)	50% (N=2)
Research		
Ideal DPCs	0%	0%
Real DPCs	33% (N=2)	0%
Equal value		
Ideal DPCs	67% (N=4)	75% (N=3)
Real DPCs	0%	25% (N=1)
Don't know		
Ideal DPCs		
Real DPCs	33% (N=2)	25% (N=1)

to teach at a certain level but you are evaluated based on your publications"; "I don't know. I think you have to teach well and that publishing is just the icing on the cake." Despite this confusion, most of the new faculty felt quite confident they would be granted tenure in due course. When asked to rate the likelihood of this occurring, experienced faculty gave a rating of 9.5, inexperienced faculty of 8.

Discussion

Workloads

Two aspects of the workload on the campus under study are noteworthy. One is that there was a considerable range in the number of hours the new faculty were assigned to teach. Most of this resulted from the new faculty being granted various amounts of release time for other assigned duties; some, however, arose from their being given lighter loads to help ease the transition into their new careers. Since there is no official campus-wide policy sanctioning release time due to new faculty status, departments differed with respect to what they were able and willing to work out for their new faculty.

A second point worth noting is that new faculty on this campus, like their peers in other studies (Boice, 1991b; Boice & Turner, 1989; Fink, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1988; Turner & Boice, 1987) expressed concerns about their heavy workloads and described workweeks dominated by lecture preparation. Since faculty tend to overestimate the amount of time they are spending on scholarly activities and underestimate the amount of time they are spending on teaching-related activities (Boice, 1991b), this lack of balance is probably even more marked than it appears.

Previous research suggests that new faculty usually respond to the pressures and anxieties arising from heavy workloads and unbalanced workweeks by developing patterns of behavior that have long-term negative effects on their interactions with their colleagues (Boice, in press), their teaching styles (Boice, 1991b; Fink, 1984), and the way they conduct research and write (Boice, 1991a). In many cases new faculty never go back to reexamine the patterns of behavior they have established (Boice, 1991a, 1991b; Fink, 1984) or to seek help in changing them (Boice, 1991a, 1991b).

These negative influences were apparent during the interviews described in this paper. The new faculty felt they could not take time to meet people and make friends. They tended to over-prepare for their classes and to strive for content mastery and control in the classroom. Their research and writing were usually on the shelf waiting for Christmas vacation. Like new faculty

on other campuses (Boice, 1991b), they saw these patterns as "temporary aberrations." Previous research on new faculty (Boice, 1991b; Fink, 1984) suggests that this will not prove to be the case.

Collegial Support

The new faculty in this study reported feeling quite satisfied with the level of collegial support they were receiving and none felt isolated or ignored. In this regard they were notably different from the new faculty on the campuses previously studied. In her interviews with new faculty at a large research university, Sorcinelli (1988) found that lack of collegial relations was "the most surprising and disappointing aspect of [the new faculty's] first year." In their study of new faculty at a teaching university, Boice and Turner (1989) noted that "relationships with colleagues were the most salient and pervasive source of dissatisfaction among all . . . new faculty."

What accounts for the different levels of collegiality found at the three institutions under review? One variable that has not been measured is the amount of time faculty spend on campus. Anecdotal information suggests that this varies considerably. For example, the teaching university mentioned above is a commuter campus where many of the faculty hold second, off-campus jobs. The university now under study is a residential campus; faculty are prohibited from holding off-campus jobs and required to have extensive office hours. It is likely that the faculty on the latter campus spend more time in their offices, halls, and lounges than do the faculty on the former, thereby giving them more opportunity to interact with their colleagues.

The importance placed on teaching at the university described in this report may also account for some of the difference in levels of collegial interaction. Boice (1991b) notes that none of the new faculty he interviewed were in departments where colleagues met occasionally to discuss teaching. Compare this to the comment made by a new faculty member at the institution now under study: "If you want to get a conversation going, just bring up something to do with teaching in the coffee room." Boice found that less than 5% of the new faculty he talked with could identify a social network on their campus for discussing teaching; 67% of the new faculty in this study could. The relative strength of the shared interest in teaching is also suggested by comparing the percentages of faculty who have specific plans to collaborate as teachers. At the other teaching university (Boice, in press) between 7 and 21% of the new faculty expected to coteach a class; at this university, 67% planned to do so. On the campus now under study, teaching appears to provide a common ground where new and senior faculty meet.

The new faculty in the present study were more satisfied than their peers on other campuses with the nature of their collegial interactions. Boice (in press) reports that besides being disappointed by how little support they were receiving from colleagues, the new faculty he interviewed were distressed by the high levels of gossip and political intrigue in their departments and by the fact that they rarely received any teaching-related collegial advice—only 3 to 6% of the new faculty in his study had received useful hints about teaching. The new faculty interviewed in the present study felt that the amount of departmental gossip in their areas was understandable, even appropriate. In addition, 83% had received what they considered to be helpful collegial advice on matters related to their teaching.

Only in the area of research were the new faculty in the present study disappointed with their levels of collegial interaction; all would have liked to have had more discussion of scholarly issues with their colleagues. Whereas 67% of the new inexperienced faculty said they were part of a network of people who talked about teaching, only 33% could describe any networks for sharing ideas about research and, as previously noted, that did not necessarily mean they were participating in them. The new faculty in this study seemed to have fewer collegial interactions involving scholarship than did new faculty on other campuses. For example, only 17% had specific plans to collaborate as researchers compared to up to 40% of the new faculty on the teaching campus Boice (in press) studied. The new faculty in the present study were also sorry that few, if any, colleagues shared their areas of expertise. In this respect they were like their peers at other institutions; even research university faculty report being distressed by the lack of colleagues with similar scholarly interests (Sorcinelli, 1988).

The new faculty in this study often believed they had been hired with the expectation that they would be conducting research and publishing at levels not formerly demanded on campus. New faculty at the other teaching university (Boice, in press) were also hired with this expectation. The first cohort of new faculty that Boice interviewed had joined the university after a ten-year hiring hiatus; these faculty reported very low levels of collegial support. Perhaps the old guard "teachers" were reacting defensively toward the upstart "researchers." There is not the same level of tension between the new faculty in this study and their senior colleagues. Although one new faculty member described feeling that he was being penalized for his interest in publishing, the rest all said they felt comfortable with the different expectations placed on them and had found the senior faculty to be supportive of their research activities. It should be noted, however, that the actions of the new faculty were not reflecting their interests; they were devoting most,

if not all, of their time to teaching. Future interviews will reveal if the camaraderie between these new faculty and their senior colleagues can be maintained in the face of differing professional roles.

It appears that inexperienced new faculty have a high need for collegiality. In Boice's (in press) study of new faculty at a large teaching university, the inexperienced faculty reported a higher need for collegiality than their experienced colleagues. This was true also in the present study; new inexperienced faculty rated collegiality as being important to them twice as often as did their experienced colleagues. Boice suggests that such data may indicate that faculty become more autonomous and less affiliative with age. However, we do not know whether inexperienced new faculty are actually less independent than their experienced colleagues or simply feel more "needy" because they are relatively deprived of collegial supports: they are less likely than experienced colleagues to be collaborating in either teaching or research and they are more rarely a member of a teaching or research network.

Boice (in press) also found new faculty to be "notably passive" about seeking collegial support and generally to expect others to come to them. His research indicates that those faculty who do take initiative in establishing collegial relationships tend to be those who thrive. With few exceptions, the new faculty in the present study appeared to be more proactive than many of their colleagues on other campuses, often mentioning seeking out senior colleagues to ask for their help or advice. However, since the climate on the campus seems to be relatively conducive to collegial interactions, little effort would be needed to initiate them. Establishing collegial relationships may, therefore, be less significant on this campus than on others as a predictor of faculty success.

Teaching

The new faculty in this study were like other new faculty in that they spent most of their working hours engaged in teaching and teaching related activities. As teachers, they most often described themselves as adopting a lecturer/interactive style of teaching. In this regard they appear to differ from their peers on other campuses (Boice, 1991b), who almost invariably reported using a "facts and principles" style of lecturing. At this time it is not known whether the new faculty described in this report actually do encourage greater student participation in their classrooms. Their institution is strongly student-oriented and it is not in keeping with the milieu to present one's self as being otherwise. The few teachers who did say they used a "fact and

principles" style of lecturing were very careful to give justifications for selecting this method.

As previously noted, the new faculty in the present study readily responded to questions about their strengths and weaknesses as teachers. Those new to teaching most frequently described their greatest strength as being their enthusiasm and enjoyment of teaching: their greatest weakness, their lack of experience. This differs from the most common responses given by the new faculty Boice (1991b) interviewed. In his study, the new faculty most often reported as their greatest strength the fact that they were well prepared and knowledgeable; as their greatest weakness, that they tended to ask too much of their students.

At both the teaching and research universities in Boice's study, the most common or the second most common response to the question about weaknesses was "None." On the campus now under study, no faculty gave this answer although given the opportunity to do so. Perhaps as a reflection of this, there were also marked differences between the responses faculty on the three campuses gave to questions concerning their plans to improve their teaching. Boice (1991b) reported that a near majority of the new faculty he worked with on both campuses had no plans to improve their teaching. On the campus in the present study, all the new faculty talked at length about how they were planning to do so, both experienced and inexperienced faculty most often reporting a desire to learn new methods of encouraging student involvement in the classroom.

If these new faculty go on to implement their plans they will be unusual: Boice (1991b) and Fink (1984) have both noted that new faculty tend to develop conservative teaching styles and not to change them over time. However, the emphasis placed on teaching at the university described in this study, combined with the relatively high levels of collegial support, do appear to be influencing the new faculty's attitudes toward their teaching. Whether their enthusiasm and desire to improve will survive student evaluations and the press of time, whether their good intentions will be translated into real changes in the classroom, remains to be seen.

Unfortunately, when describing the changes they expected to make in their teaching, the new faculty in the present study usually displayed little awareness of the campus resources available to assist them or of how the specific strategies they were hoping to implement might actually impact their students. For example, despite expressing an interest in learning how to encourage greater student participation, the majority of the new faculty were actually spending their time striving to master thoroughly their course content and tightly organize their classes. Boice's research (1991b) suggests

that this common way of attempting to gain control of teaching is usually counterproductive. The new faculty in the present study, however, were still optimistic about the potential efficacy of such behavior.

Scholarly Writing

Both Boice (1991a) and Sorcinelli (1988) have found that although new faculty would like to achieve a balance between teaching and research they actually end up giving far greater priority to class preparation than to writing for publication. Boice and Turner (1989) have further reported that while the majority of the new faculty they interviewed had hoped to spend 50% of their time on scholarly writing and had estimated that 30% was probably a more realistic goal, they were, by the end of their first years, actually spending less than 15% of their time writing.

The new faculty in the present study were also devoting little time to scholarly writing; by their own estimates they spent less than 13% of their workweeks engaged in such work. However, the new faculty appeared to differ from their colleagues on other campuses in not being particularly surprised or disturbed by this—perhaps due to the nature of their collegial interactions with the senior faculty and the value their campus places on teaching. Boice (1991a) quotes one new faculty member in his sample as saying, "I know what I should be doing. No doubt about it, all this time I'm spending on teaching isn't going to have much payoff. . . . I had no idea that teaching would take so much time." A new faculty member in the present study said, "They told me not to expect to get any writing done during the semester—that's what summers are for, and I guess they're right."

The new faculty described in this study may also have been relatively undisturbed by their failure to do scholarly work because they all had hopes of publishing or submitting papers by the end of the term. Like their first semester peers at other institutions (Boice & Turner, 1989), these hopes were usually based on plans to complete manuscripts that were already in progress when they arrived on campus. However, Boice (1991a) reports that in his experience new faculty tend to do virtually no writing during their first semesters and, thereafter, to write at levels well below the mean of 1.0 to 1.5 published manuscripts per year expected for tenure. The new faculty in this study may well find that it is more difficult to publish at acceptable and personally satisfying rates than they now believe it will be.

A third factor that may contribute to the new faculty's optimism is that the interviews were held mid-semester when they were looking forward to, but had not yet had, an extended vacation. The faculty frequently mentioned planning to get caught up on their scholarly projects during fall break and

Christmas. But Boice and Turner (1989) discovered that faculty who plan to get work done during vacations rarely are as productive as they had hoped. In one of their samples, 84% of the new faculty identified specific writing projects they expected to complete during the summer; only 19% actually did so. The plans of the new faculty now being studied may well meet the same fate.

As a group, the new faculty in the present study revealed little knowledge about what writing habits were the most productive: one person proudly stated that once he got started writing, he would write all night; another apologetically admitted that she only wrote forty minutes three days a week and that if she couldn't think of something to say, she would just put anything down on the paper. This ignorance about productive writing habits was nowhere more obvious than when the inexperienced new faculty discussed what they considered to be their best writing strategies. They recommended with equal frequency and enthusiasm scheduling time to write, thoroughly planning their papers before starting to write, and being deadline-driven. Research on scholarly writing (Boice, 1990) indicates that some of these strategies are effective, some notably counter-productive.

New faculty are usually unclear about how much publication is expected of them and how Departmental Personnel Committees will evaluate and weigh teaching activities and scholarly work (Boice, 1991a; Fink, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1989). In response, they tend to become anxious about their levels of scholarly productivity and to conclude that they must be prolific publishers (Boice, 1991a). Like their peers on other campuses, the new faculty in this study were unsure of what to expect from their DPCs. Unlike their peers, however, they seemed to feel little anxiety about this uncertainty. As previously noted, all were still optimistic about getting something published in the near future; all felt that they were at least, if not more, interested in publishing than their senior colleagues; and, despite their concerns about what would be involved, all were confident they would be tenured. As one faculty member reported, "My chair said not to worry."

Summary

This paper reports the preliminary results of a longitudinal study of new faculty at a comprehensive, residential, coeducational state university noted for its teaching orientation and compares this data with that gathered on other campuses in previous studies of new faculty. The first semester interviews indicate that the new faculty at this university resemble their peers at other institutions in a number of ways, most notably in that their work is dominated by class preparation, their levels of scholarly activity are far below what they

had initially expected, and their knowledge of effective teaching styles and productive writing habits is inadequate to meet their needs. The new faculty appear to differ from other new faculty in that they have found relatively high levels of collegial support on their campus, informal and teaching-related interactions between junior and senior faculty being common.

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Nine Keys to Enhancing Campus Wide Influence of Faculty Development Centers

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For faculty development centers (FDCs), the next few years may be the most crucial yet. The stage has been set for increased commitment to teaching: AAHE national conferences have emphasized instruction, and lawmakers and college guide writers have indicted research-driven institutions for paying insufficient attention to teaching. The presidents of Harvard and Stanford have recently urged increased emphasis on teaching, and other college presidents are jumping on the bandwagon.

More money and power will likely go to faculty development, which, in turn, will attract a school of sharks ready to fight for devouring rights to that money and power. FDCs will have to deal with deans and department chairs, many of whom will insist that they know best how to generate instructional improvement in their schools. And they will be able to summon support from such big fish as Carnegie Foundation President, Ernest Boyer, Stanford Professor, Lee Shulman, and AAHE President, Russ Edgerton.

Like all decisions on college campuses, the choice of who will control new faculty development money will be based both on merit and political clout. Of course, FDCs must place program quality ahead of political gain. An FDC that pursues political chits to the detriment of program quality will be perceived for what it is, and will shrivel in influence. But FDCs must also ensure that their achievements and requests receive full consideration from campus leaders. This article will offer suggestions for how to ensure this.

These ideas represent a combination of what one author has found effective in his consulting work at a number of colleges and universities, and what the other author has found useful while helping to build the Office of Instructional Development at the University of Georgia. During this author's ten years as Director of the Office, its budget has grown from less than $100,000 to over four times that amount, and it has moved from cramped quarters to a brand-new, custom-designed, 4,000 square foot office building.

Enhancing the Influence of FDCs

If the authors were to assume co-directorship of a new FDC, we would take the following steps to maximize our political status:

1. Report to the top

An FDC director should attempt to report to the most credible, influential person possible. At small colleges, we would try for the president, and at larger institutions, the provost or vice president for academic affairs. If an FDC director is unable to report to the top person, our second choice would be the person who reports to the top person. So, if the top person is the vice president for academic affairs, the FDC director should attempt to report to the associate vice president for academic affairs rather than, for example, to the vice president for business services. The office of academic affairs typically has more money and power than other units and is viewed as controlling the central function of the institution: academics. By reporting to an academic affairs administrator, the FDC is more likely to be perceived as central to the operation of the institution and to have closer access to the people with the most power and money within the institution.

2. Give due credit to the boss

Because the boss is probably responsible for most of the FDC's resources, he or she deserves credit for achievements. For example, a newsletter's masthead might include "A service of the Office of Instructional Development under the auspices of the Vice President for Academic Affairs." At FDC events such as workshops, retreats, opening sessions of T.A. training, and teaching award ceremonies, we would invite our boss to speak, make an introduction, or present an award. We would introduce him or her as the person who made the event possible. In short, when there is joy to be shared, let the boss partake of it. After all, your boss is the reason you exist in the first place.

3. Help the boss solve problems

For example, the boss is frequently asked for money. Deciding whom to fund is time-consuming and can make enemies. So, an FDC director might offer to administer some money allocated for faculty development by constituting a committee of respected deans, department chairs, and faculty plus the FDC director to make the funding decisions. Volunteering for this task relieves the boss of a potentially odious activity while increasing the FDC's influence—the office becomes a source of funds. One FDC director said, "You can't do business on an empty wagon."

Another easy but visible way to help your boss is to offer to write the many instruction-related letters that must be written: for example, congratulations to teaching award winners, and letters of welcome to new faculty and teaching assistants. The FDC should be a problem solver, not a problem maker.

4. Give things away

Once some projects are developed, it may be wise to give the rights to run these to someone else on campus, ideally a powerful administrator or leader, such as a dean or faculty senate officer. There is both a substantive and political reason for this. An FDC should be a creator of programs, not necessarily a maintainer. In addition, giving things away may pay dividends later when support is needed for new ideas.

5. Involve faculty in your efforts

Faculty should be involved in planning specific FDC efforts and as members of an FDC advisory committee. After all, FDCs exist to serve faculty. When faculty input is sought up-front, programs are more likely to meet faculty needs and to engender a sense of ownership which will subsequently help in disseminating the program to others.

Apart from these substantive reasons for involving faculty, remember also that faculty can be biased against administrators and non professor types, especially those who have not progressed up the academic ladder. So, an FDC's credibility can be enhanced by involving faculty in its efforts.

6. Build relationships with other campus leaders

Early on, the FDC director should meet individually with deans, key department chairs, and faculty, to identify current faculty development efforts, resources, and needs. Where possible, the director should offer

programs to meet those needs, sharing credit for the program's development with all those who were consulted.

Special efforts should be made to develop partnerships with potential competitors. Cooperation can be more beneficial than competition. For example, an FDC can often join forces with the computer or media center to enhance the quality of both office's products: FDC efforts can make fuller use of technology while computer/media center efforts can incorporate the expertise of the FDC.

Priority might also be given to projects with campus-wide impact (for example, items 7 and 8) and to projects with units headed by someone who could be an effective cheerleader for the FDC.

7. Publish a "must have" newsletter

A quarterly or monthly newsletter filled with compelling features is a superb ongoing advertisement for an FDC. Consider including features like:

a. The faculty time-saver of the month

b. Grants available from the institution

c. Important events to attend

d. The teaching tip of the month

e. Other resources available for faculty—even, perhaps, a restaurant of the month, wherein a local restaurant popular with faculty agrees to offer a "two-fer" coupon in the newsletter.

8. Sponsor nurturing activities

Faculty and administrators appreciate efforts to nurture their human side. For example, by sponsoring weekly TGIF get togethers, an FDC provides an ongoing reminder to the entire faculty and staff of the FDC's commitment to improving their quality of life. Similar benefits are derived from a "Just for You" bag lunch seminar series with topics like, "The Faculty Spouse" and "Looking Toward Retirement?"

9. Don't act like an empire builder

Obviously, the bigger an FDC's budget, the greater its power and influence. But, rather than always asking for new programs, offer to fold into your office existing campus programs that aren't going well. Also, as mentioned earlier, build partnerships with other campus units. Potential candidates are computer-based instruction, media services, faculty recreational programs, and even tutoring or mentoring programs. The thing to

remember is that you are there to help faculty, not compete with them for resources.

Summary

The success of an FDC rests upon administrative support, faculty enthusiasm, and campus-wide credibility. The spirit of this article is that instead of building monuments to your office or yourself, try to make other people look good. If you can do this, through high quality work that really benefits the faculty and the institution, your rewards will follow.

What Every Faculty Development Professional Needs to Know about Higher Education

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Introduction

Many faculty development professionals come to their work from faculty ranks and are relatively unfamiliar with the organizational dynamics and structures in higher education. In addition, many faculty development professionals have not taken formal course work in higher education administration. These informational gaps may take their toll. While knowledge of effective teaching, curriculum development, and professional development are of critical importance to the effective operation of a faculty development program, program success, and even survival as a faculty development professional, may depend upon how well one understands the larger organization and how it functions.

The discussion presented here describes a framework that can be useful in helping one understand organizational complexity. And, equally important, it illustrates the application of the framework in typical situations the faculty development professional will face in learning how to be effective in higher education. The particular framework discussed in this article was developed by Bolman and Deal (1984) and has been identified by others (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989; Birnbaum, 1989) as a valuable tool for those who wish to exercise leadership in higher education.

Four Frames or Perspectives.

After an analysis of the literature of organizational theory, Bolman and Deal concluded that the various approaches to understanding organizations could be placed within four basic frames or perspectives. These frames represent the major approaches to organizational theory and research. The labels Bolman and Deal provided were the *structural* frame, the *human resources* frame, the *political* frame, and the *symbolic* frame.

The Structural Frame. Structures are the formal elements of organizations, and are depicted on organizational charts. Structures include the functions of, and lines of authority for, positions and the formal rules and procedures that prescribe how members of organizations are to function. Early examples of the structural approach are the works of Frederick W. Taylor (1911), often called the founder of scientific management, and Max Weber (1947), the sociologist who used the concepts of bureaucracy and hierarchy to describe the organizations that were developing during the industrial revolution. The structural approach emphasizes efficiency and rational decision making. Reorganization is regarded as the solution to most problems.

The Human Resources Frame. Those who developed the human resources frame did so, in part, in reaction to the limitations of the structural frame. The human resources approach reminded us that organizations are inhabited by people and that organizations function better when one attends to the needs of people. One who most influenced the development of the human resources approach was Abraham Maslow (1970), whose hierarchy of needs provided a means for understanding the nature and dynamics of human needs. Maslow's work has been very popular in training programs for teachers and educational administrators. Douglas McGregor (1960) studied the attitudes of managers toward employees and identified a negative perspective (Theory X) and a positive perspective (Theory Y). Frederick Herzberg (1966) attempted to discern what factors contributed to worker satisfaction and discovered that factors such as salary and working conditions contributed to dissatisfaction, but contributed little to satisfaction. On the other hand, factors such as sense of achievement and level of responsibility contributed significantly to satisfaction. Chris Argyris (1957, 1964) emphasized human motivation and morale, training programs to enhance human relations skills, and worker participation in decision making.

The Political Frame. Those who developed the political approach questioned some of the assumptions of the earlier approaches. To them, complex organizations include various interest groups, and such groups naturally attempt to further their particular interests. The clash of different

interests produces conflict, and conflict may lead to negotiations and compromise which, in turn, produce more or less acceptable decisions. These dynamics, rather than the rational approach of the structural frame or the focus on positive relationships in the human resources frame, seem to characterize much of organizational life. Baldridge (1971) studied the uses of power and conflict by students and faculty on campuses during the 1960s and 1970s. Those who utilize the political approach focus on power, the formation of coalitions, and the dynamics involved in the distribution of scarce resources.

The Symbolic Frame. Proponents of the symbolic frame moved even further from the rational approach than did the proponents of the human resources or political frames. From the perspective of the symbolic frame, understanding the event itself was not as important as the meanings ascribed to the event. Clark (1972) described the organizational saga as a means by which participants gave meaning to their experience and understood events. Organizations were understood to be inhabited by heroes, about whom stories were told. Traditions and rituals developed as ways of celebrating important events and elaborating the organizational culture. Cohen and March (1974) observed that ambiguity seemed to be a common experience in organizational life and that the rational model of decision making was not adhered to by many administrators in spite of their claims to the contrary. Schein (1985) developed a comprehensive discussion of the nature of organizational cultures and concluded that those cultures are often very resilient, especially at the deeper levels. Kuh and Whitt (1988) described the complex nature of organizational cultures and suggested strategies for actually analyzing them. Chaffee and Tierney (1988) have applied the cultural approach to case studies of seven institutions of higher education. Three cultural dimensions (structure, environment, and values) were described and related to three additional concepts (time, space, and communications). Finally, Chaffee and Tierney described three organizational strategies (linear, adaptive, and interpretive) that interface with the three dimensions of culture.

Those who utilize the symbolic frame pay special attention to the elements of organizational cultures, typically values, traditions, and symbols, especially as those define meaning within the culture.

Application of the Frames

A brief application of each frame to higher education illustrates how useful the frames are in understanding organizational issues in faculty development.

The Structural Frame. Old Historic University was planning to develop a new focus on teaching excellence. The planning committee was discussing where to locate the program within the University. Some committee members thought that funds could simply be allocated to the deans and that they would carry out the new emphasis on teaching. Others argued that there should be a new structure that would be charged with the focus on teaching. The committee finally agreed upon the latter strategy.

The next question was where to locate the new structure. The University already had an office of research with a director who had strong academic credentials and reported directly to the academic vice president. Some favored simply expanding that office to include the teaching focus. One argument for this approach was that it would be economical. Others favored the development of a new, free-standing program that would serve as a counter-balance to the emphasis on research. Those who favored this position explained that it was essential to have the teaching office placed at the same level as the research office within the organizational structure and to have a director for that office reporting directly to the academic vice president. The question was, does the placement of the new program within the university structure make any difference? However the question is resolved, one thing is certain: Where the program is located within the university structure will have consequences.

If the new program had been combined with the research office, which was an established and well-funded unit, the new program might have been overshadowed and overwhelmed. That decision would have placed the teaching program in a weaker structural position. The director of the teaching program would have had to report to an administrator within the new office which would have placed that program a layer lower in the structure of the university, away from the academic vice president. The closer one's unit is to the "top" of the organizational chart, the more authority one can exercise in the typical hierarchial organization.

The Human Resources Frame. Dean Vestige at Old Guard College decided it was time to plan a faculty development program. He called together two of his most trusted department chairpersons and they designed a program that seemed just right for Old Guard. Dean Vestige briefly discussed the plan with the president just to be sure he approved. At the next faculty meeting the new plan was announced.

Two years later, Dean Vestige wondered why the program had never really taken hold. He saw Dean Collegial, from a nearby college, at a regional meeting and asked her how their faculty development program was doing. "Rather well," was the reply. "Our faculty committee took nearly a year to

develop the program, but it was worth it," she said. "They are really enthusiastic."

Dean Vestige had failed to understand that participation in planning and decision making is essential for any group to take ownership of a program. He lacked one of the most important insights emerging from the human resources frame.

Participation in decision making increases the morale of anyone in an organization, but is especially important to professionals. Faculty view themselves as highly autonomous and believe they deserve to be consulted about matters that have a direct bearing upon their work.

Another insight of the human relations frame is that people are motivated by achievement. As program administrators, we sometimes forget that participation of faculty in the development of new program initiatives gives them a sense of achievement, just as it does for us.

The Political Frame. Dr. Diligent had worked for several years to build an excellent faculty development program at the university. However, when the state economy entered an economic recession, the campus faced severe budget reductions. Although Diligent had provided many helpful programs for faculty, he had generally ignored the deans and had a very limited relationship with the academic vice president and president. When decisions were being made about where to take the budget reductions, the deans protected their turf, and the academic vice president accepted their recommendations.

Diligent sank back in his chair as he read the memo from the vice president stating that Diligent's office would be eliminated at the conclusion of the current academic year. Of course, the memo continued, his good work was much appreciated, and he could return to his academic department to teach. "All those years of work down the drain," thought Diligent. "Thank goodness I have tenure or I would be out on the street!" He had learned a lesson the difficult way. Good work alone is not enough to survive in higher education.

Decisions about levels of funding and continuation of programs are made by those who have the power and influence, and those decisions take place within a political process. Knowing how to be connected with that process and how to develop political support for one's program can make all the difference.

If Diligent had worked more closely with the deans, the power base of the program would have been expanded. Input from the deans could have been sought when particular projects were being considered. Diligent could have made an appointment at the beginning of the academic year and

discussed matters of mutual concern with each dean. In addition, he should have sought the advice of the vice president on especially important or sensitive issues and kept him or her well informed of the activity and successes of the faculty development program. Efforts should have been made to ensure that the faculty development program had high visibility and support on campus. Frequent announcements in the campus newsletter would have helped. Program participation by faculty should have reflected as many academic departments and colleges as possible, rather than having been concentrated in just a few. These are a few of the strategies which Diligent might have employed from the political frame.

The Symbolic Frame. Dr. Astute was appointed Director for Teaching Excellence for a school of medicine. She spent the first several weeks on the job taking stock of the school, the students, the faculty, and the administrators. She was especially intent on discovering the important values of the culture of the school. It became increasingly clear that the school had a lengthy, well established, and honored tradition of placing research at the apex of its values. The most significant rewards and recognition went to those who were successful in the research arena. Institutional resources were heavily dedicated to research, and the rhetoric of the school, as expressed in official publications, as well as in informal ways, lauded the school's research accomplishments. Teaching, on the other hand, seemed to be a neglected and, in some ways, a peripheral activity. Dr. Astute concluded that a frontal assault on this culture would be ineffective and probably counterproductive.

After much thought and discussion with colleagues in other but similar situations, she decided upon a strategy. She would attempt to tie teaching issues to the research interests of the faculty. In that way she could attach her goal of improving teaching to the firmly held values of the faculty, especially the senior faculty. She also selected and developed materials for her office that emphasized the research on effective teaching and the ways in which teaching and research could be mutually reinforcing. She initiated a monthly forum with the academic chairpersons to discuss *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate* (Boyer, 1990), a report from the Carnegie Foundation suggesting a new definition for scholarship.

Dr. Astute understood that values are often deeply embedded in an organizational culture and are resistant to change. She also knew that if she could link teaching to the firmly embedded value given to scholarly research, she might find the faculty more receptive. Further, Dr. Astute realized that it is vital to pay attention to important symbols in the organization. Finally, she was aware that the academic chairpersons were very respected leaders in the school of medicine and that their participation in her program would send a

positive signal to other faculty in the organization. In short, Dr. Astute recognized the importance of understanding the organizational culture of her academic unit and she effectively utilized that understanding as a vehicle for enhancing her chances for success.

Conclusion

The cases presented here have illustrated the benefits of the ability to approach important issues in our organizations from each of the four frames, as well as some of the perils when one does not have that ability. The *structural frame* enables us to recognize the implications of faculty development program placement within the structure of the college or university. The *human resources frame* enables us to recognize the importance of issues of human motivation and morale as they relate to the success of a faculty development program. The *political frame* enables us to recognize the importance of power and the need to build coalitions that can be utilized to support a faculty development program when the program must compete for scarce institutional resources. The *symbolic frame* enables us to recognize the importance of values, traditions, rituals, and heroes as those elements of organizational cultures shape attitudes toward and participation in a faculty development program. Those who are serious about leading a successful faculty development program would do well to become familiar with the valuable literature on organizational behavior. The works referenced in this article are recommended as a basic reading list.

During these challenging times, faculty development programs deserve to be led by professionals who are both experts in the field and who are astute about how higher education organizations function. The success and survival of our programs may hang in the balance.

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Outside Consultants: When, Who, and How to Use Them

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Outside consultants are often considered luxuries. This is understandable. Budgets, in real dollars, have generally declined, while low-cost expertise has become easier to obtain. There are more and better POD publications and conferences, and increased networking among POD members. ERIC/CIJE can be accessed via CD- ROM, a vast improvement in user-friendliness. And the American Association of Higher Education has devoted recent conferences and publications to instructional development.

Yet anecdotal and empirical evidence suggests that the right consultant used at the right time and in the right way can yield not only large program benefits, but increased funding many times in excess of the consultant's fee. In the largest study to date of faculty development's effectiveness, Eble & Mc Keachie (1985) evaluated programs at 33 Midwestern colleges and universities and found that one of the factors common to successful faculty development programs was the use of outside consultants.

That's not to say that consultants are always useful. For example, most of us have heard horror stories about consultants who descend upon a campus with a pre-packaged program, and a few days later, dance off with a fat fee, leaving behind an alienated staff and an unsolved problem.

This article will address the following questions:

1) How does a faculty developer know when a consultant is needed?
2) How does one find the right consultant?
3) How does one ensure maximum benefit at minimum cost?

How Do You Know When You Need A Consultant?

MYTH: Only hire a consultant when you need highly specialized expertise or if disaster is impending.

There are at least five other times when even the most successful faculty development program can benefit greatly from an outside consultant: before initiating a new program, when effectiveness is hampered by interpersonal difficulties, when effectiveness is hampered by budget problems, when in-house personnel don't have time to do needed work, or when a more objective viewpoint is needed.

1. Before initiating a new program.

In a conventional approach, a faculty development director might supplement his or her own knowledge about a planned innovation (for example, a workshop on "Teaching as a Performing Art") by reading and by talking with an expert or two. Then, before implementing the innovation, the director might survey the intended program participants to gain their input and buy-in.

Too often, such a procedure doesn't work. For example, the director of instructional development at a small Catholic college wanted to institute a department chair training program. He met individually with each chair (practical at a small college) to gain input into the proposed training. Three chairs volunteered to participate in the first cohort. The training was set to begin.

Unfortunately, the instructional developer failed to ask the deans and chairs a crucial question: "How did they feel about *his* being the trainer?" (Subconsciously, he didn't want to raise this question because he wanted to be the trainer—it would be a visible way to demonstrate his value to the college.) Even had he asked, the chairs may not have been candid.

At the last moment, the instructional developer decided to bring in a consultant "just to be safe." The consultant phoned a half- dozen department chairs, and most of them told the consultant they were reluctant to participate because they didn't want to receive training from a faculty developer. They wanted training by a team of respected department chairs. The program would have had two strikes against it before the first pitch was thrown. The consultant recommended that the instructional developer convene a meeting of the participating department chairs to identify acceptable trainers.

The consultant also helped the instructional developer by suggesting some content for the training (e.g., time-savers for department chairs). More importantly, he helped with an often overlooked key to program success:

marketing. The best program in the world still needs marketing, on the front end to obtain participants and perhaps financial support, and on the back end to expand the program beyond the pilot phase, to institutionalize the innovation, and to ensure that the faculty developer gets due recognition for the program's success. The latter is crucial when it is time to renegotiate the instructional development budget.

In sum, when a new program is contemplated, even if the faculty/instructional developer believes he or she has the content expertise to implement it, and even if it is a small program, an outside consultant, brought in for a short time can mean the difference between embarrassment and success. In the case described above, the consultation was done entirely by phone for a total cost of $1500.

2. When effectiveness is hampered by interpersonal difficulties.

Within and between many units at an institution, negative feelings accumulate and rarely get communicated to the offending party, at least not in a constructive way. An outside consultant, if perceived by all parties as fair, interested only in making all their lives happier and more successful, can be a conduit for the negativity. Having heard it all, the good consultant can, in collaboration with all concerned, bring the problems into the open and develop plans to ameliorate them.

For example, while attending a conference the director of the faculty development center at a prestigious Eastern university mentioned to a consultant that something was not quite right at the center. Slipups in work quality were a bit too frequent and the "vibes" around the office were slightly tense. Things were still okay, but seemed to be moving in the wrong direction.

The consultant spent two days talking with each employee at the center, one-on-one, in small groups, and finally by chairing a "town meeting" of all the employees to develop an action plan for improvement. (See page 106 for a copy of that action plan.)

A relatively small consultant fee, some tinkering with the feedback loops, transferring one staff member, and greater efforts to enhance friendliness around the office, led to a permanent improvement in the productivity and job satisfaction of everyone on the six-person staff.

3. When budget problems are hampering effectiveness.

Recommending the use of a consultant in this situation may surprise some readers because when money is short an outside consultant seems like

a luxury. But if the person is selected carefully and used properly, the consultant's fee can be an investment that pays big dividends in increased funding.

For example, the faculty development center at a mid-sized Midwestern state university had been suffering with no-increase budgets for the last three years. Meanwhile, expenses had increased as had the demand for services. The director, although only on 75% time, was working 50-hour weeks. Understandably, program quality had begun to suffer.

Each request by the director for additional funding was met with polite refusal. Colleges and universities usually have the money for what they want to spend it on. The problem was that the vice president for academic affairs perceived that neither he nor the university was receiving enough benefit for the dollar. Therefore, he chose to spend discretionary funds on such faculty favorites as travel grants and sabbaticals.

Working closely with the director of faculty development, the outside consultant developed a plan for increasing the visibility of benefits to the university, and just as importantly, the benefits to the academic vice president and other power hitters at the university. For example, the labor-intensive and low-visibility individualized counseling of faculty was temporarily reduced to create time to develop a high-visibility retreat for deans and department chairs. The academic vice president was encouraged to be involved in planning the event, and the faculty development director took pains to ensure that the deans and department chairs were fully aware that the vice president deserved much of the credit for the retreat.

This faculty development center started receiving annual budget increases, which over the following three years totaled $26,000. The consultant did all the work long-distance (see below) for a total cost of $1700.

4. When in-house staff doesn't have time to do vital work.

For example, a Southern regional state university had just appointed a new president. Starting with his inauguration speech, he made it clear that first priority would be to crank up the institution's research productivity. He fired the provost, a teaching-oriented person, and replaced her with a former academic vice president at a Carnegie I research institution.

This spelled trouble for the faculty developer and her one-person shop. To reduce the potential for the disemboweling of her budget or even her position, the faculty developer would have liked to initiate programs to help faculty to become more productive researchers: for example, workshops on grant writing, writer's block, and how to do research on teaching. The problem was that the faculty developer's time was fully taken by other

projects on which she had already invested considerable time. It was too late to make major changes for this school year.

The solution was an outside consultant. The faculty developer was out of money, but convinced the new provost, the dean of the school of agriculture, and a few department chairs to contribute a small sum of money to hire a consultant to develop, with input from the faculty developer and the financial backers, a three-year plan for improving faculty research productivity, which would be implemented beginning the following September.

Using the consultant not only enabled the faculty developer to accomplish what she didn't have time to accomplish, but also added a cachet to the plan for enhancing the faculty's research productivity. This cachet increased the university's perception of the plan's value, and indirectly, the faculty developer's value. The investment in a consultant increased the likelihood that she will remain central to faculty development at the institution.

5. When a more objective viewpoint is is needed.

For example, a faculty development director might want an outside perspective on the program: How good is it? What are its strengths and weaknesses? An external review can offer a big morale boost while heading off problems that are still solvable.

Also, an outside consultant's objectivity can be valuable when a faculty developer is negotiating next year's budget. No matter how compelling a faculty developer's arguments for funding his or her program, they may be seen as self-serving and biased. But bring in an outside consultant to assess the cost-effectiveness of the program, and the credibility of the request increases. Of course, this should be done only if the faculty developer is confident that the program is, in fact, cost-effective.

How Do You Find the Right Consultant?

MYTH: You should choose the person with the most content expertise, the one with the "biggest name."

Content is often not the core problem. It is psychologically easiest to justify hiring a consultant by saying, "We need more content expertise." But content expertise can often be acquired at no cost within the institution, from written materials, a CD-ROM search of ERIC/CIJE, or a quick phone call to a colleague or two at another institution.

Even if a consultant is needed to provide content, the "biggest name" may not necessarily be the smartest choice. There is a difference between knowledge and the ability to transfer that knowledge. If I were looking for a

piano teacher of classical music, I wouldn't necessarily hire Van Cliburn, even if I could afford him. His knowledge may be so second nature, so advanced, that he might be unable to communicate what I need—the basics—clearly and patiently.

A "big name" also often brings another liability: the attitude that he or she has *the* answers. The "big name" consultant may or may not have the answers, but that attitude will certainly inhibit the sense of ownership that most clients and their staff need to help implement changes.

An even bigger liability of many "big names" is that they often have acquired their "name" because they are widely published in prestigious journals. Such journals primarily publish theoretical articles and rarely publish practical articles, and practical solutions are precisely what one needs when hiring a consultant. Gil, Lucchesi, et al (1983) echo this concern. They found that private consultants tend to be more practically oriented; that university personnel, in general, are more interested in arriving at broadly generalizable ideal solutions; while the need, when retaining a consultant, is to arrive at specific and practical solutions.

Even top content experts who communicate that content well, and who are good at generating practical solutions, are unlikely to achieve maximal effectiveness unless they are also expert in understanding interpersonal dynamics and the way power is distributed and acquired at colleges and universities. Usually, the complete solution requires taking politics and interpersonal dynamics into account.

The best consultants may be those who have a knack for coming up with practical solutions, who possess moderate content knowledge (They know enough to provide needed expertise, yet they're less likely to convey the sense they have *the* answers.), who speak and write clearly, and who are skilled change agents. Good change agents understand the complex dynamics occurring among faculty developers, faculty, resources, and administrators. They have the ability to ask the right questions and to engender trust from people they have just met.

How to identify an excellent consultant:

1. Is the person a full-time consultant? Full-timers will have more experience as change agents than university employees who do consultation as a sideline. Gil, Lucchesi, et al (1983) have found that full-time consultants are less likely than university professors or administrators to have other responsibilities that will interfere with the consultant's ability to complete the work on time.

2. How good are the consultant's recommendations from former clients? In choosing a consultant, recommendations may merit more weight than an

impressive vita. An excellent vita offers no guarantee of one's ability as a change agent.

3. What are the consultant's previous final reports like? Don't be impressed by physical weight. Too often, the utility of a report is inversely proportional to its heft. And a thick report will cost you more than a thin one. The best reports are usually brief, with specific, practical, clearly explained recommendations. A consultant's report usually also summarizes the process undertaken to develop the recommendations. Does this process make sense to you?

4. What can you infer about the consultant from an initial discussion? Does the consultant seem to have a knack for generating practical ideas quickly? How clear are his or her explanations? Does the consultant seem to possess adequate content knowledge? How enthusiastic is the consultant? How much attention does the consultant pay to the the interpersonal and political factors that may be affecting the situation? Does the consultant have the sort of personality that would engender trust from those just meeting him or her?

How Do You Ensure Maximum Benefit at Minimum Cost?

MYTH: Because consultants are expensive, they only are feasible for big projects.

Often, the most cost-effective way to use a consultant, even for some large projects, is long-distance: using phone, fax, modem, teleconferencing, E-mail, and mail. In paying by the hour rather than by the day, with no airfare and land expenses, one may be able to afford a consultant even for small projects.

Many clients believe that to help with an ongoing program, the consultant must observe the program first-hand: "The consultant needs to see how it's working." In truth, because the consultant can usually spend only a short time observing a program in action, an on-site observation is likely to yield little valid information. Because personal observations, no matter how brief, tend to create strong impressions, a site visit often causes a consultant to base his or her judgments on a sketchy observation rather than on more valid information. It is usually better for the consultant to assess the program's strengths and weaknesses by interviewing and surveying program implementers, supervisors, and participants, and by assessing participant outcomes, much or all of which can be done long-distance.

When adapted to the individual circumstance, the following model for long-distance use of a consultant can often yield maximum benefit for minimum cost.

1. Before the initial phone call, define with care the problem to be addressed by the consultant.

A common error is to call the consultant without having taken adequate time to define the problem(s) the consultant is to address. This definition usually takes more effort than many clients think, even when the problem seems obvious. For example, if a faculty development office has been charged with developing a new writing-across-the-curriculum training program, it might want a consultant to help plan it. But that is too general a description of the problem.

Clients are miles ahead if they can identify their specific needs. Do they need help in selecting appropriate training vehicles? In designing the training itself? In selling faculty on it? In convincing administration that more money is needed? In developing a project evaluation? In working with a particularly difficult and/or particularly powerful person on campus? Usually, it is wise for clients to speak with representatives from all constituencies likely to be affected before attempting to develop a description of the problem. By making a best attempt at defining the questions to be addressed *before* calling the consultant, clients can save much money: the consultant won't waste time working on nonessentials and going down blind alleys.

Attempting to define the problem before contacting the consultant also helps ensure that the consultant doesn't mold the problem definition to suit his or her strengths and biases rather than to meet the needs of the client.

2. The initial phone call focuses on refining the definition of the problem(s) to be addressed and on identifying the information needed to develop a solution.

The client should begin by presenting the problem(s) defined in Step 1. The good consultant then helps to refine the problem definition. For example, to ensure that the problems presented are not merely symptoms of deeper problems, the consultant should ask questions such as, "What led you to decide that this program was needed?" and "Assuming the program was implemented as you envision it, might a residual problem remain?"

It is appropriate that for the first part of the discussion a consultant not charge the client a fee, because this period should be viewed as a tryout, an

opportunity for both parties to assess if they can work well together. The consultant must make clear at what point there will be a fee.

The next task in the discussion is to agree on what information must be gathered in order that effective solutions can be developed, and who should gather it. Much money is wasted when consultants collect information that could more inexpensively be collected in-house. For example, prior to developing a program to enhance faculty skills in working with non-white students, a consultant and the client jointly developed a needs assessment questionnaire regarding multicultural issues. Once the questionnaire was developed, the client rather than the consultant assumed the time-consuming tasks of producing and distributing the questionnaire, the follow-up letters and phone calls to increase response rate, and the tabulation of results. This saved the client thousands of dollars in consultant fees.

The consultant should be asked to collect information only when necessary: for example, when one requires opinions from faculty, administrators, and staff that they might not share candidly with the client.

The consultant or client should draft a contract which includes a work and payment schedule and a description of the activities and products the consultant is to provide. Sample contracts can be found in Gil, Lucchesi, et al (1983).

3. The information is collected and used to develop the first draft of an action plan.

The information gathered by the client is sent to the consultant. The consultant melds this information with any that he or she has collected.

Long-distance consultants enjoy benefits over on-site consultants in that they have the resources of their office at hand, and often those of a major university. For example, the multicultural needs assessment revealed that faculty wanted help in dealing with underprepared students. One math professor wrote, "Many of my minority students are doing poorly in my calculus classes. If I take class time to continually reteach concepts to these students, I feel I'm being unfair to the other students—we won't cover the material they need to move on to the next course. If, on the other hand, I don't take the time, and merely ask low-performing students to go to the tutoring center, I feel that I'm being rigid. I need help in dealing with this problem."

Because the consultant was working long-distance, he was able to review the literature on mixed-achievement classes using materials at his office plus those at U.C.-Berkeley's Education-Psychology library before drafting an action plan. The consultant also had the benefit of time. Over a two-week period, he visited the library twice, called a dean at the client's

college, spoke with an expert on ability grouping at the Rand Corporation, and met with a high school teacher known to be expert at teaching mixed-ability classes. Perhaps most importantly, the consultant had time to ponder the results of all this data collection. The consultant who must do all the work on-site often feels pressure to come up with a prescription right away.

4. The first-draft action plan is presented in a teleconference attended by all affected constituencies.

The effective consultant emphasizes that the first-draft action plan is a synthesis of the ideas presented by all parties, and that the purpose of the teleconference is for participants to recommend changes, including, if appropriate, major ones.

For instance, recall the earlier example in which the consultant recommended increasing high-visibility activities such as a retreat for deans and chairs. One teleconference participant suggested that the retreat would have greater focus and more lasting impact if participants were to produce a tangible product during the retreat. Another participant then suggested that a suitable product would be a department chair handbook that "would actually be useful."

5. The action plan is revised and implemented.

The consultant revises the recommendations in light of the teleconference and writes a *brief* final report. Money can be saved by asking that the consultant wnotw write the standard long final report, in which all the history and supporting data are presented. Typically, much of this information is already known to the affected populations, is rarely read, and serves more to provide tangible evidence of the consultant's efforts than to benefit the program.

Often, the report should consist of little more than the recommendations and their rationale, and an action plan for implementation that includes a timetable. Sometimes a report can be even simpler and yet extremely valuable. Here is the full report written after an on-site visitation to the faculty development center at a prestigious Eastern university that was suffering from intra-office communication difficulties.*

*The client granted permission to reproduce this report. The names and some details were changed to preserve anonymity.

Dear Amy,

Here is a summary of the ideas that were generated during my visit.

Although I've said this to you before, I want to stress that I believe that your faculty development center is already very good, and the recommendations below are simply designed to make an excellent center even better. I also want to reemphasize that most of the recommendations were generated by you and your talented staff. This ability to generate good ideas from within is just one more example of your center's quality.

In the interest of brevity, I will list the recommendations without the rationale behind them. I've shared the rationales with you and your staff. Of course, if anything is not self- explanatory, please phone me.

• SHIFT SOME SUPERVISION OF STAFF FROM YOU TO HARVEY. To reduce your overburdensome workload and capitalize on Harvey's strengths, Harvey would assume primary responsibility for dispensing day-to-day feedback to staff and answering their questions. You would, however, maintain your open-door policy so that anyone who wanted to speak with you could do so. You would also meet with each staff member quarterly to provide clear feedback on strengths and areas for growth. You and the staff member should collaboratively develop an action plan for ameliorating each area for growth.

I did not sufficiently stress this while on campus, but staff needs to know that they, not just you and Harvey, must be clearer in asking and giving feedback. This is easier said than done, but it's a goal worth shooting for.

• SHIFT RESPONSIBILITY FROM YOU TO HARVEY FOR INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT GRANTS.

• ANNUAL PLANNING CALENDAR. A large, attractive calendar might be hung in the central work area. All staff would be asked to note all anticipated absences, OID events, even staff birthdays and other fun occasions.

• INFORMAL HUDDLING. As appropriate, all staff might consider informal pow-wows with one or more other staff members. Harvey has expressed a personal interest in initiating more of these, but all staff might be encouraged to do so.

• WHO GETS WHICH OFFICE?. All staff (except Amy and Harvey) might individually think about what office space might best meet their needs. Then the staff should meet to divide the space so that the greatest overall good is achieved.

• MARILYN MIGHT ASSUME MORE WRITING RESPONSIBILITIES. If it is felt that her workload is already too heavy, you might consider utilizing a work-study student to answer phones so Marilyn would have more time to write.

• REGARDING DARRELL. I've suggested to him that he needs to come to you (or Harvey?) for a new assignment when he completes a task rather than going on to work on some lower-priority activity. He also has been advised that he might want to monitor himself a bit more closely to ensure that his comments at meetings (e.g., at the faculty council) are not overzealous. It will be interesting to see if, with occasional reminders, he improves.

• A RENEWED COMMITMENT TO ALL-STAFF INVOLVEMENT WHERE POSSIBLE. e.g., picnics, TGIF get-togethers, etc.

POSSIBLE AREAS FOR FURTHER STUDY

• IS THE MEDIA CENTER FUNCTIONING OPTIMALLY? The media center is a large unit under the faculty development center's jurisdiction, so the quality of the media center's services significantly impacts the faculty development center's overall functioning and reputation.

• A VIDEOCAMERA/INTERACTIVE VIDEO-BASED TRAINING PROGRAM FOR TEACHING ASSISTANTS.

Harvey and I discussed this a bit, and he asked me to provide the name of a leading firm utilizing this technology. It is Performax, Inc. of Westport, CT.

• POSSIBLE FRONT-BURNER INITIATIVES. The meeting with the senior faculty underscored your belief that emeriti programs and writer's block workshops might be moved to the front burner. As Barbara's husband pointed out, it may be important to get Dr. Wilens involved early if the writer's block workshops are to have maximal impact.

As you pointed out, this may be an ideal time for new initiatives. You're renovating your offices, there will be personnel changes, and you are beginning to develop a plan for the center's second era—a plan designed to ensure that it remains one of the nation's preeminent faculty development centers and one with even greater impact on faculty, staff, and students. I wish you well.

Sincerely,

Two years later, the client reports that she continues to glance back at this report as a refresher. She said that if the report were longer, it probably would be gathering dust.

5a. Follow-up.

Although follow-up could have been included within Step 5, it is so important and so often omitted that it demands separate mention. Many a wonderful action plan has failed to be fully implemented or to stay fully implemented. For example, many innovations fade away because they don't become institutionalized; that is, they don't obtain permanent funding, staffing, or demand for service. An action plan that includes follow-up can reduce the risk of these problems. For example, here is the action plan for the department chair/dean retreat.

1. A step-by-step strategy for planning the retreat. Each step listed the responsible *office* (not the responsible person, because a person may leave or become too busy). It also included a deadline for each step. A sub-plan was written for obtaining funding for the retreat.

2. A plan for evaluating the retreat, both to provide guidelines for improvement, and if successful, to provide evidence of that success which could be used to obtain subsequent funding.

3. A plan for making the retreat an annual affair if it was successful. This plan for institutionalizing the retreat included a list of the office assigned permanent responsibility for planning the event, a timeline-based procedure for planning the retreat each year, and a plan for obtaining hard money to fund it annually. (In this case, the University Foundation agreed to fund it pending review of the first retreat's evaluation.)

Some readers might wonder if it is a waste of time to develop the plan for institutionalizing an innovation before knowing if it is worth institutionalizing. But if planners know that there is a practical way to ensure that the innovation will be permanent, they seem to make extra effort to ensure that the first attempt is as successful as possible. The time it takes to develop the plan for institutionalization is usually small relative to the benefit.

In sum, most action plans should include follow-up: concrete steps (with deadlines) for implementing the innovation , evaluating it, and institutionalizing it.

On-site Consultation

There are instances in which a site visit is necessary. For example, extensive face-to-face interactions are important when many persons are involved, when a program must be observed in action, or when problems of interpersonal relations are complex and central to solutions.

No single approach will suit all circumstances, but the following model for a two-day on-site consultation has proven very beneficial and cost-effective in a surprisingly wide range of situations.

Before The Visit

1. If the consultant is a good public speaker, you may save a large proportion of the cost. Contact someone on campus who might like to have him or her speak: provost, alumni director, student services director, director of admissions, etc., and ask if there is interest in him or her giving a talk for a fraction of his or her normal rate. You're already having to pay travel expenses, and since the consultant will already be on campus, he or she may charge little additional to make an address. Yet, you can reasonably ask the sponsor of the speech to fund a significant portion of the consultant's costs.

2. If the consultant is coming from afar, try to schedule the consultant's visit to begin on a Monday and ask if he or she wouldn't mind arriving on Saturday night to relax and tour the area on Sunday. Agree to pay the consultant's land expenses for the day. Airfares are dramatically lower if one stays over a Saturday night, so if the consultant's does so, you'll usually save hundreds of dollars, even after you've deducted the cost of the extra land expenses. Additionally, the consultant will begin on Monday well rested.

3. Agree on a tentative agenda a few days before the visit. This is close enough to the visit date that the consultant is likely to have given serious thought to how he or she would like to proceed, yet early enough that you have time to make sure that all parties with whom the consultant might want to speak will be available. Give the consultant a list of the times each person will be available to meet.

The Visit

4. The consultant and key players meet briefly, one-on-one. Group meetings, especially those including the boss, can inhibit candor.

5. As the consultant learns more about the situation, he or she may schedule meetings with other individuals.

6. In light of what the consultant has learned, he or she brings together groups of 2-4 of the people above to discuss what they revealed and what the consultant has inferred. Where appropriate, confidentiality is maintained.

7. At the end of the first day, the consultant drafts a deliberately premature set of recommendations—as a way of concretizing his or her thinking, and providing the client and other key players with something concrete to which they may react. This helps the consultant to refine assumptions and recommendations.

8. The consultant begins the second day by meeting with individuals and small groups to discuss the premature recommendations that apply to them. They revise and often transform the premature recommendations into draft recommendations.

9. After these meetings, usually around 2 P.M., the consultant hides away for an hour or two to synthesize all this input into a first draft list of recommendations and commendations.

10. Late in the afternoon, the consultant convenes a "town- meeting" of all concerned. During the first few minutes, the consultant presents the first draft list of commendations and recommendations. Then, the participants provide input into changing the first draft recommendations into penultimate draft recommendations. The consultant serves as facilitator. After all the penultimate draft recommendations have been agreed upon, the town-meeting participants develop an action plan for implementing each recommendation. The consultant concludes by summarizing this draft of an action plan, and the town meeting ends when all agree that it is a reasonable first draft.

11. The client hosts a reception immediately following the town meeting. For a relatively small cost, this not only builds collegiality, but adds import and ceremony to the consultant's visit which increases the likelihood that the action plan will be taken seriously.

Indeed, a major benefit of an on-site consultation is ceremonial. When an outside consultant is brought in to address a problem, everyone knows the problem is being taken seriously, and it marks a new beginning, a chance to erase the past and move into a new era.

12. The consultant leaves and as soon as possible (while the client and others' interest remains high), puts the action plan in writing including a draft plan for evaluating and, if appropriate, institutionalizing program changes.

13. Upon receipt of the action plan, the client distributes it to all affected parties, requesting their suggestions for changes.

14. The final action plan is written by the client, reflecting the input of all concerned. Thus, ownership ends up not with the consultant, but where it should be: with the client and affected parties.

Summary

An outside consultant can be a powerful ally in improving program quality if the following practices are followed:

1. Key opportunities for the use of a consultant are recognized: e.g., a long-distance consultant can be cost-effective even for a small program.

2. In selecting a consultant, skill as a change agent and in generating practical ideas are weighed at least as heavily as expertise in a content area.

3. Strategies are used to alleviate the major disadvantage of consultants, their cost:

a) Prior to contacting the consultant, thorough efforts are made to identify the root problem(s), not just the symptoms. A lack of content knowledge can often be addressed without a consultant, using print resources and colleagues.

b) Where possible, the client, not the consultant, gathers the information needed to develop an action plan.

c) Where possible, long-distance consulting is used: fax, modem, E-Mail, teleconferencing, phone, and mail.

d) A specific plan for follow-up is developed to assess implementation and, if appropriate, institutionalization of changes.

Conclusion

Robert Townsend, former head of Avis, once described a consultant as "Someone who borrows your watch to tell you what time it is." Yet, if carefully chosen and used, consultants are not merely useless luxuries: they are essential. They are essential because they can improve program quality, which in turn can result in increased program funding far in excess of the consultant's fee. Perhaps more importantly, good consultants revitalize. They restore enthusiasm, idealism, and passion. What could be more important?

References

Eble, K. & McKeachie, W. (1985). *Improving undergraduate education through faculty development.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Gil, E., Lucchesi, E., Tauber, G., & Onderdonk, D. (1983). *Working with consultants.* Chicago: American Planning Association. (Report No. 378).
While written for urban and regional planners, this monograph will be useful to faculty developers, especially those contemplating retaining a consultant for a large project that will require multi-level approval. The monograph offers a practical, step-by- step procedure for selecting a consultant using a formal RFP process. It also includes sample contracts and good advice on how to manage the consultant and your staff while the consultancy is in progress.

Holtz, H. (1985). *Utilizing consultants successfully: A guide for management in business, government, the arts, and the professions.* Westport, CT: Congressional Information Service.
Primarily aimed at business leaders, this volume offers particularly good sections on how to figure out ways a consultant can be of help, and how to define the parameters of the problem the consultant should address.

Section III

Promoting Diversity: Gender and Multicultural Issues in Academe

Few issues of the past decade have provoked as much interest, print, and passion in Academe as those of gender equality and multicultural diversity. This should come as no surprise. These vital concerns touch the personal and professional lives of all involved in the higher education enterprise: students, faculty, staff, and administrative officers. And if there are to be satisfactory resolutions to the problems we currently face in these areas, each of us must do his or her utmost, including, of course, the faculty development professional. The four articles in this section boldly, but judiciously, address the issues of gender and multiculturalism, not only providing valuable insights into the problems we face, but also suggesting practical strategies for helping achieve the kind of equality of opportunity for which we strive.

Arguing that faculty development practices in higher education have been "marginalized in the same way and for the same reasons . . . women are often marginalized in male-dominated institutions," Deborah Du Nann Winter suggests that the very survival of faculty development depends upon its continued application of feminine values in conjunction with the feminization of Academe itself. Her article, "The Feminization of Academia," exhorts developers to continue practicing and emphasizing feminist values in the classroom and curriculum, for only through these values can we hope to transform our colleges and universities.

Deborah Olsen reinforces Professor Winter's clarion call for awareness and action. In her article, "Gender and Racial Differences among a Research University Faculty: Recommendations for Promoting Diversity," Olsen re-

ports on a major study aimed at "disentangl[ing] the effects of institutional type and rank from those more directly attributable to gender and race." Through interviews with 146 minority, white female, and white male tenure-track faculty, Professor Olsen and her associates help us come to a better understanding of "what aspects of the faculty experience are common to all faculty at a major research university, and what features . . . differ by race and gender." She follows her descriptive analysis with a list of recommendations aimed at encouraging "all faculty" to reach their fullest potential.

The last two articles in Section III provide still other suggestions for dealing with the issue of multicultural diversity. In "Managing Diversity Through Faculty Development," Marie A. Wunsch and Virgie Chattergy describe how the University of Hawaii at Manoa's Office of Faculty Development and Academic Support has begun to integrate diversity issues into nearly all its programs, from New Faculty Orientation to TA Training. Rosslyn Mynatt Smith, Patricia Byrd, Janet Constantinides, and Ralph Pat Barrett give their article a somewhat narrower focus: the training of international TAs. The thesis of their essay, "Instructional Development Programs for International TAs: A Systems Analysis Approach," is that in order to be successful, ITA programs must be designed within the context of a particular institution, thus necessitating an effective systems analysis or self-study before making ITA program design choices.

The Feminization of Academia*

Deborah Du Nann Winter

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In a recent issue of *To Improve the Academy*, van der Bogert, Brinko, Atkins, and Arnold (1990) call for an approach to faculty development that integrates both feminine and masculine modes. They suggest that the traditional academic climate has been masculine in its hierarchical organization and its emphases on a) individual competition and accomplishment, b) research over teaching, c) sacrifice of personal to professional lives, and d) the development of expertise, specialization, and efficiency. Citing key literature on gender differences in thinking and personality (Chodorow, 1978; Gilligan, 1982; Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986), they describe the feminine style as cooperative rather than competitive; connected rather than autonomous; nurturing, interdependent, and as using networks rather than vertical organization to communicate, make decisions, and evaluate.

Because distinguishing between masculine and feminine styles sometimes leads to confusion, a few prefatory remarks about these dimensions may help clarify their use in this article. Both masculine and feminine styles refer to general characteristics of groups of women and men, rather than to dichotomous characteristics which separate men from women. Clearly, many women value expertise and competition, and many men value cooperation and sharing. Furthermore, there are many women who also value competition over cooperation, just as there are many men who also value sharing over expertise. But, in general, more women are focused on creating connection and involvement while avoiding isolation; and more men are focused on achieving status and accomplishment while avoiding dependence (Tannen,

*The author would like to thank Susan Palmer of the Sociology Department at Whitman College and Richard Lewis of the Psychology Department at Pomona College for their insightful comments on an earlier draft of this manuscript, and for so helpfully modeling the feminist values discussed here.

1990). One final point. Throughout this article I will be using the words "feminine" and "feminist" interchangeably, both referring to traits, values, and concerns that are more generally associated with women than men.

Faculty Development as a Feminist Activity

In their study, van der Borgert et al. point out that the most effective faculty development programs integrate both masculine and feminine modes, just as Carl Jung (1953) pointed out many decades ago that the most fully functioning individuals integrate *anima* (feminine characteristics) with *animus* (masculine characteristics). Nevertheless, institutions of higher education are traditionally male-dominated organizations where specialized expertise, individual autonomy, rigorous evaluation, and competition for resources characterize many activities and endeavors (Sanford, 1980).

Further, van der Bogert et al. state that much faculty development work historically has been undertaken to support the masculine values of higher education, by emphasizing skill development and expertise: examples include "orientation programs, sabbaticals, exchanges, grants workshops, and curricular and instructional development programs" (p. 93). Even those programs concerned with feminist issues have been undertaken with a masculine orientation: for example, strategies for "increasing awareness about discrimination, monitoring campus climate, and providing support for those who have been victims of inappropriate behavior" (p. 93). Such programs show an emphasis on rules and rights, a traditionally masculine concern (Gilligan, 1982).

Suggesting ways of more explicitly integrating the feminine modes within the masculine institution, van der Bogert et al. conclude by calling for programs which more formally address feminist values of connection, community, and relationship. When these characteristics are combined with a masculine emphasis on skills and logic, they are termed "transformational" techniques. In listing the various types of transformational activities, the authors show a clear focus on cooperative modes of working, including "collaborative learning, teaching, and research; providing support groups; empowering subordinates and sharing decisions; encouraging faculty interdependence in the department/college/institution" (pp. 94-95).

Van der Bogert et al. have provided a valuable way of conceptualizing faculty development work using gender dimensions. My purpose here is to explore further the feminist basis of faculty development and suggest that the survival of faculty development will not only be dependent upon the continued manifestation of feminist values, but also will depend on the feminization of higher education itself, a trend that is already observable.

While generally supporting the thinking of van der Bogert and her colleagues, I wish to depart from their work by suggesting that faculty development is *already* quite a feminist enterprise. Many of those activities which van der Bogert et al. call for form the basic value structure on which faculty developers work. For example, those of us who have participated in The Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD) will recognize the emphasis on horizontal rather than vertical organization, illustrated when new members are quickly assimilated, and when the central committee is run with a consensus model. Even the very concept of "help" is a feminine value, because asking for and receiving it threatens the ostensible autonomy and independence of the receiver. Research suggests that females are more likely to give and request help than males (Tannen, 1990). Effective help on professional and teaching practices requires caring, support, and mutual sharing.

The Marginalization of Faculty Development

In fact, I would argue that faculty development practices at most institutions have been marginalized in the same way and for the same reasons that women are often marginalized in male-dominated institutions. Both run counter to the prevailing dominant norms of autonomy, expertise, and independence. Women and faculty development both threaten the existing patriarchial order, and in so doing, are often subtly and not so subtly patronized and diminished. This thesis would explain the following observations, which are my own, but I believe are widely shared:

- Faculty developers have frequently felt undervalued by the power structure at their institutions. They have had to continually scramble for funding and resources, even for recognition. However, traditionally male endeavors such as research and evaluation procedures for promotion and tenure receive much more attention, energy, and time.
- Teaching has been undervalued relative to research. Faculty development, like women, has often shown more concern for teaching. As Caryn McTighe Musil (1990) recently argued at an AAHE meeting, teaching is institutionally like domestic work: it is the women who stay home and take care of the children. The men travel outside the institution doing "real" work—that is, research.
- Relative to other administrative positions, faculty developers are more often women

- Relative to other administrative positions, faculty developers, male and female, show more feminine personality characteristics: e.g., caring, nurturing, and interpersonal sharing.
- A common misunderstanding about faculty development is that it is for remedial purposes (hence, the equation of *"help"* with *"weak"*).

These observations are no surprise to faculty development practitioners, who might not call themselves feminists, but who nonetheless express many feminist values. It may or may not be reassuring to recognize that the marginalization of faculty development may be as much due to the fact that faculty development symbolizes feminist values in a masculine institution as any other personal or even institutional features of faculty development programs.

While van der Bogert et al. call for the strengthening of faculty development through more emphasis on the feminine modes, the above analysis would suggest otherwise. Increasing the salience of feminine values in a masculine system is unlikely to redress the undervaluation of faculty development programs by traditionally masculine administrators and faculty. However, there are other ways to bring faculty development to a more central, mainstream position within the academy.

The Feminization of Academia

Fortunately, the academy itself is showing signs of becoming increasingly feminized: more collaborative, more personal, more interpersonal. While the language of feminism has not been used to describe current trends in higher education, most recent discussions would agree on the following emerging themes:

1. The importance of teaching over research is being highlighted. Major commissions and associations of higher education (Carnegie Commission; American Association of Universities; American Association for Higher Education) and even major research universities (Stanford, Harvard) are calling for the return to the original purpose of the university: teaching (Miller, 1990). While faculty developers might like to take some credit for this awakening, I believe there are much larger demographic factors to be credited: e.g., the increasingly high cost of higher education for the smaller subset of 18-21 year olds. As institutions must increasingly scramble for students, the recognition that opportunities for better student learning may be more important in choice of college than research prestige, has forced administrators to take another look at classroom teaching and its institutional importance.

2. Related to the above concern, the increasing emphasis on active learning and collaborative learning models has signaled a new concern for the role of the learner (AAC Report, Vol. I, 1991; Schon, 1987; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1986). Whereas traditional masculine models of teaching have posed the professor as the expert who delivers the facts to the uninformed student, active learning suggests a different definition of both knowledge and student. Much more in line with the feminist view of knowledge as a shared intellectual event, the social construction of knowledge allows the student to share a more equal role with the facilitator, rather than the expert. In newer teaching models, student and professor work together addressing complex problems. Team teaching and team learning are emphasized. The typical classroom changes from the expert pontificating to the naive, to small work groups addressing a problem, with the professor roaming from group to group to act as consultant. Such practices are much more congruent with feminist modes of intellectual practice.

3. The increasing emphasis on connections and meaning across the curriculum will demand new roles for the professoriate. Recent attacks on the undergraduate curriculum (Boyer & Levine 1981; AAC Report 1985; AAC Task Group, 1988) have converged on the fragmentation characterizing the undergraduate curriculum. Requirements based much more on political considerations than sound intellectual merit have delivered an incoherent smorgasbord of specialized courses as an excuse for undergraduate liberal education. Attempts to build a more coherent and defensible baccalaureate experience will encourage faculty to engage in much more team teaching, interdisciplinary curriculum design, and integrative course experiences. These features will again require faculty to step out of their narrow bands of specialization and work together collaboratively, learning from each other and mutually considering problems of complex nature. As a recent participant in a collaboratively taught interdisciplinary general studies course, I can attest to the potent form of faculty development that it delivers: learning new skills in intellectual and pedagogical realms is a continuous and intense experience when one works as a team with other colleagues in different disciplines.

Faculty Development as a Feminist Agenda

The trends in higher education described above are taking place whether or not faculty developers explicitly recognize them or call them feminist in nature. I would argue that as faculty developers we can enhance our effectiveness by considering ways in which we can help faculty function more effectively in the changed contexts within which they will be asked to

perform. We must continue to emphasize the feminist values on teaching, active learning, and coherent curriculum design.

Should we call ourselves "feminists" as we do so? There may be some good arguments for dispensing with that language: many would claim that it is incendiary; that it invites defensiveness; that it carries unintended connotations. Use of feminist language is often misunderstood to categorically define differences between all men and all women, leaving the many who recognize both sets of traits in themselves alienated from a framework based on gender differences. Such terms can also perpetuate stereotypes and perpetuate the separation of the genders, making it harder rather than easier to encourage integration of both masculine and feminine modes.

In spite of these risks, however, I would like to conclude this article by suggesting that casting the work of both faculty development and the direction of higher education in feminist terms has several important advantages that should not be dismissed quickly.

First, feminism offers a structural explanation for why many of the values of faculty development work have been undermined at our institutions. Structural explanations can help us to take our disappointments less personally, and to forgive colleagues who may have been part of those disappointments.

Second, and perhaps more important, feminism offers an historical explanation for why academia is headed in the direction it is. Is it simply a coincidence that both the emergence of faculty development, as well as these changing values in higher education, are occuring when large numbers of women have entered the academy and are beginning to work in powerful positions? I suggest that the increase in numbers of women students, faculty, and administrators has impacted the zeitgeist of academia so strongly that a feminine agenda becomes as legitimate as the masculine agenda.

Finally, feminism can be an empowering concept that offers encouragement for the natural abilities and values of many faculty developers. As successful players in masculinized institutions, most faculty developers have had to tuck away many natural impulses toward cooperation, sharing, intuition, and emotions. Articulating the feminist agenda may help us all, as men and women, to feel freer to act upon these values, model them, and lead our institutions toward the transformation which van der Bogert et al. so effectively describe.

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Gender and Racial Differences among a Research University Faculty: Recommendations for Promoting Diversity

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There is currently an unprecedented level of interest in recruiting and retaining women and minority faculty, groups traditionally underrepresented in the academy. Driven in part by demographic changes in the labor force and predictions of a shrinking pool of faculty applicants, universities and colleges have begun to reassess the campus climate for women and minorities. A handful of major universities, such as Stanford and the University of Michigan, have recently undertaken substantial initiatives to expand and promote the work of women and minority faculty at their institutions. However, it is still true that the majority of women and minorities remain concentrated at less prestigious, two-year and four-year colleges and at the lower end of the faculty ranks (Lomperis, 1990; Menges & Exum, 1983).

The fact that gender/racial status and institutional affiliation/academic rank are often confounded becomes particularly important when attempting to interpret current research on the academic performance and role interests of women and minority academics—research that suggests lower research productivity, a heavy teaching orientation, and substantial commitment to institutional service (Carnegie Foundation, 1990; Finkelstein, 1984; Menges & Exum, 1983; Simeone, 1987). One way to disentangle the effects of institutional type and rank from those more directly attributable to gender and race is to examine the experience of faculty in a more homogeneous

academic environment—in particular, a research-oriented, doctoral-degree granting institution that selects faculty based largely on their interest and performance in the area of research. Though generalizations based on data from such a sample would be limited in nature, differences found among white male, white female, and minority faculty should provide useful information about race- and gender-based differences among faculty groups with similar professional demands.

This paper describes interviews conducted with 146 minority, white female, and white male tenure-track faculty from a large, public research university. The study was carried out to provide a broad and systematic basis for policy and program recommendations for the recruitment and retention of women and minority faculty. By speaking with faculty we hoped to understand better what aspects of the faculty experience are common to all faculty at a major research university, and what features of the experience differ by race and gender. During the one-to-three hour interviews we spoke with faculty about research, teaching, and service; relationships with colleagues and with the university; and about the inevitable conflicts between academic and personal lives. The results suggest a picture of faculty who overlap broadly in their expectations, goals, and achievements, but who also, despite intense socialization and selectivity pressures, differ in significant ways. Understanding the differences among faculty groups is particularly useful to faculty developers, whose task is to help all faculty perform to their fullest, reaching a successful balance between personal proclivities and interests, and institutional expectations.

Method

Sample

Of the 146 tenure-track faculty interviewed for the study, 29% were white males, 32% were members of an underrepresented minority (African-American, Hispanic, or Native American), and 39% were white females. Minority faculty comprise approximately 4% of faculty at Bloomington (a figure comparable to that found at other public research universities, Russell et al., 1990) and virtually all minority faculty on campus at the time were interviewed. In 1989-90, women constituted about 20% of tenure-track faculty at Bloomington. Approximately 90% of all faculty contacted, regardless of subsample membership, were willing to participate. Faculty were drawn from the College of Arts and Science, the School of Education, and the Business School, and represented all faculty ranks. The School of Education and the School of Business were included because women and

Blacks have traditionally been better represented in education and underrepresented in business. Approximately 25% of each subsample held some type of formal administrative position (e.g., director, chair, dean), so there was no obvious difference in the three groups' level of service based on formal administrative responsibilities.

Measures

Faculty were contacted by the Office of Academic Affairs and invited to participate in an hour to hour-and-a-half interview on faculty career development. Faculty were not aware that matters of race or gender were at issue and, in fact, few questions dealt specifically with these topics. By inquiring into the more general aspects of faculty development, we were able to address key questions raised by the literature on women and minority faculty and yet not bias participants' responses. Our findings thus emerged fairly spontaneously from faculty comments.

Faculty responses were gathered using two different instruments, a semi-structured interview schedule and a questionnaire. Both instruments were based on measures developed in past studies by the Office of Academic Affairs (Sorcinelli, 1988). The interview covered the following general areas: career path, major responsibilities and interests (research-teaching-service), balancing work roles, balancing work and personal life, performance evaluation and criteria, greatest satisfactions, stresses and successes, career plans, and women's and minority issues. The Faculty Career Questionnaire included measures of "facet-specific" and "global" job satisfaction, work stress, satisfaction with nonwork life, and the balance between work and nonwork life. In addition, faculty were asked what kinds of programs would contribute most to their own professional development.

The approach taken in the study was a blend of ethnography (an open-ended accounting of responses and behavior) and standard survey techniques. Instead of asking one or two questions about an area or issue, we asked a series of related questions, hoping to find patterns of response across measures, across topics, and across questions. These methods helped add a richness to our data. However, one caveat about the data is also in order. In reviewing the findings, readers should remember that data reflect faculty perceptions of career, work environment, university governance, and colleagues. For much of the data collected there is no other source than the faculty themselves. As Bowen and Schuster (1986) note, "[t]he condition of the American professoriate is only in part discernible from the measurably tangible aspects of campus life. The faculty condition cannot be understood apart from the faculty's own perception of its condition" (p. 138). At the same

time perceptions may be biased, affected by historical or personal events. Study results reported below focus on trends of sufficient magnitude and consistency that it is reasonable to assume a relatively high level of consensus among faculty and faculty subgroups.

Results and Discussion

Career path

A growing body of literature suggests that women and minority faculty start their careers at a critical disadvantage because of a systematically different socialization experience (see e.g., Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Justus, Freitag, & Parker, 1987; Simeone, 1987). Frequently cited, for example, is the absence of a mentor or sponsor in the early career of women and minority Ph.D.s. Earlier research at Indiana University also suggests that the values and expectations individuals hold when they decide upon an academic career and the course their graduate training and early career takes, are factors that exercise a long-term impact on career development (Sorcinelli & Gregory, 1987). In this study, wide differences were found in the career paths and expectations of the three faculty groups, differences that were minimized but not eliminated by the professional socialization process.

On the whole, women and minority faculty tended to define their interest in a discipline as early or earlier than white male faculty, but did not consider an academic career until much later, often after the start of graduate school or in the early part of their career. For white men, interest in a field of study and the decision to pursue that interest academically were much more closely linked, with about half of all white men deciding upon a faculty career by the end of their undergraduate years.

Although virtually all faculty reported having been good students and intellectually engaged by academic work, women and minority faculty felt they were less often encouraged to pursue graduate training and were less likely to consider it a realistic career option. Their relatively late commitment to academe appeared to reflect not so much ambivalence as a difficult process of defining a faculty position as a professional possibility. Evidence from the study also suggests that, having once decided upon an academic career, women and minority faculty still held markedly different expectations from their male counterparts of the world they were about to enter. Of the three groups, white male faculty were the only ones clear at the outset of their graduate training about wanting a faculty position at a *research* university (about a quarter of women were even unsure they wanted a faculty position). Furthermore, white men were more likely to cite "a desire to do research" as

a key professional incentive, while women and especially minority faculty were more likely to report a desire to teach. Interestingly, white males were almost twice as likely as other faculty to mention an academic lifestyle (freedom, security) as influencing their commitment to an academic career. Perhaps because women and minority faculty were somewhat more naive entering graduate school, or perhaps because they had more family and community commitments, both groups tended to experience more interruptions in their career than white male faculty, the only group with over half reporting a fairly linear career trajectory.

Findings with regard to the mentoring of women and minority faculty were encouraging, with mentoring occurring at a much higher rate (65%-75%) than might be expected from the literature. Approximately one-third of women and minority faculty had same-sex or same-race mentors. Over half of all three faculty groups appeared to receive substantial assistance from their mentors when seeking jobs or other sorts of professional opportunities. At the same time, data suggest that the mentoring experience may have been somewhat different for the three groups. Perhaps most significantly, women and minority faculty reported less support developing specific projects and skills than did white male colleagues. These findings suggest a supportive but somewhat more distant working relationship between women and minorities and their white male mentors, but further examination is required. White women were more likely than white men to see their mentors as role models, and minority faculty were more likely to see minority than white mentors as role models.

Major responsibilities and role interests

A large and burgeoning literature exists on gender- and race-related differences in the research productivity, teaching load, and service responsibilities of faculty. Although investigations into research productivity appear equivocal, there is a fairly good consensus that women carry heavier teaching loads and teach less at the graduate level, and that women and minorities are extensively involved in service activities on their campus (Carnegie Foundation, 1990; Elmore & Blackburn, 1983; Finkelstein, 1984; Justus, Freitag, & Parker, 1987; Menges & Exum, 1983; Simeone, 1987; Silver, Dennis & Spikes, 1988). In our interviews, we felt that attempts to quantify and compare different aspects of a faculty member's experience were important, but needed to be interpreted in light of the meaning and value faculty attach to the various responsibilities they shoulder. We were thus concerned about determining what aspects of research, teaching, and service were most satisfying and which most unsatisfying to the three groups of faculty; what

they perceive as their greatest needs; and how, given different sets of satisfactions and needs, faculty negotiate the various demands on their time and energy. We also felt it was important to understand how faculty perceive the university's expectations of them and how these expectations influence the balance ultimately struck.

Research. Faculty spend one-third or more of their time carrying out research (Table 1). Consistent with white males' earlier, more focused research orientation, they appeared to spend more time than other groups on research, though differences did not reach statistical significance. Overall, faculty were quite satisfied with the quality of their own research, their knowledge of their field, their research skills, and their equipment and facilities. Somewhat surprisingly, it was white male faculty who were least satisfied with the amount of research they carry out and publish. Given the research emphasis in this group, it is quite possible, however, that these findings reflect a discrepancy between quite respectable actual academic attainments and a very high level of expectation. Minority faculty were the group least satisfied with their ability to secure research funding, and they indicated that internal support was of the first importance to their research. Women were least satisfied with their statistical and computer skills. The greatest dissatisfaction for all three groups was with release time for research and funds for travel to professional conferences.

Respondents' answers indicated that departments are satisfying and supportive environments for research. Faculty were consistently more than moderately satisfied with their chairpersons, graduate students, and colleagues. Furthermore, about a third of white male and female faculty cited faculty colleagues or graduate students as the factor most important to their research.

It seemed possible that a critical difference among the three subsamples might be the strategies they use to accomplish research. Such strategies are

TABLE 1

Mean Percentage of Time Spent in Research, Teaching, & Service

	White Male	*Minority**	*White Female*
% time research	41%	34%	36%
% time teaching	34%	34%	39%
% time service	25%	30%	26%

*Note. Percentages do not capture a small number of minority faculty (2%) indicating they spend a percentage of their time on "other" activities (i.e., not research, teaching, or service).

more or less effective in gaining time and resources and exercise a differential impact on other areas of faculty responsibility. As anticipated, some strategies were used almost universally: faculty work nights and weekends and try to set aside summers for research. Faculty also more consistently avoid unscheduled contact with colleagues than with students to gain research time.

White female faculty appeared to use two primary strategies to make time for research: (1) establishing a teaching schedule that allows two to three hour blocks of time or whole days for research and (2) minimizing nonessential uses of time, e.g., skipping lunch and colloquia, and avoiding casual conversation. Minority members, like women, attempt to establish blocks of time for research. Of the three subsamples, minorities were the least likely (30% vs. 60%), however, to limit teaching time and to refuse service commitments outside the department to accommodate research. Yet, minority faculty do not simply surrender research time to teach; approximately 60% of minority faculty were unwilling to modify their research goals in the face of other demands. All three faculty groups felt excellence in research is and should be of extreme importance to tenure and review decisions.

Teaching. There were no significant differences among the three subsamples in terms of overall courseload or the number of new courses taught. Consistent with the literature, however, white women did appear to teach more introductory courses and, in particular, fewer graduate courses than white men. Figures for percentage of time spent teaching (Table 1) hovered around one-third for all groups (women's estimate being only slightly higher).

As in the case of research, faculty felt quite satisfied overall with their skills, their content expertise, and their readiness for assignments. Nevertheless, of the three groups, minority faculty were most satisfied with their students and their teaching. Faculty satisfaction with classroom facilities was lower than with research facilities, with female faculty especially adamant that improvements in acoustics, lighting, and temperature control are needed.

White male faculty were most likely to view their courseload as too heavy and least likely to see their teaching as contributing "a great deal" to their professional development. The majority of white male and female faculty define their role interests as leaning toward or heavily toward research, while almost half of the minority faculty view teaching and research as equal and complementary roles (Table 2).[1] All faculty were, however, less

[1]Note that findings suggest a much more prevalent research orientation among female faculty than often reported in the literature. While results undoubtedly reflect a bias in the sample due to the nature of the institution, they also suggest that more recent cohorts of women faculty may feel greater accord with the research mission of the university.

than moderately satisfied with institutional rewards for teaching. When asked to rate the real and ideal importance of various criteria for tenure, for instance, faculty ratings of teaching were widely discrepant, with all three groups assigning a higher ideal value to teaching than they believe it is ascribed in reality (Table 3).

Service. Time estimates provided by faculty (Table 1) indicated that faculty tend to spend about a quarter of their time on service. Estimates for minority faculty were higher, but not significantly so. Other studies have similarly failed to find significant differences in the distribution of professional time by race (Elmore & Blackburn, 1983; Silver et al., 1988). Nevertheless, the overall pattern of time distribution for each of the three groups is revealing. Of all faculty, minority members demonstrate the most even

TABLE 2
Role Interests: Research vs. Teaching

	White Male	*Minority*	*White Female*
Role Interests:			
Heavily toward research	43%	26%	36%
Both, lean toward research	19%	4%	20%
Both, equal & complementary	26%	47%	24%
Both, lean to teaching	2%	9%	13%
Heavily toward teaching	7%	11%	7%
Other	2%	4%	—

TABLE 3
Mean Ratings* of Real and Ideal Importance for Tenure

	White Males		*Minority*		*White Females*	
	Real	*Ideal*	*Real*	*Ideal*	*Real*	*Ideal*
Research publications	4.83	4.36	4.86	4.50	4.94	4.50
Teaching	3.25	4.17	3.70	4.55	3.48	4.18
Dept./university service	2.38	2.79	2.83	3.40	2.34	2.87

* 5 = extremely important

distribution of time across research, teaching, and service categories, and white men the least. Evidence suggests that minority faculty feel a deep level of commitment to both teaching and research and derive substantial satisfaction from both. It remains unclear, however, whether minority faculty feel, as is often assumed, a high level of commitment to service, whether they are simply asked to take on more service responsibilities, or whether both factors influence their choices.

Minority faculty were no more likely than other faculty to volunteer for a committee (about half never volunteer) and only a third of minority and 7% of women reported serving primarily to represent a feminist or minority viewpoint. Nevertheless, minority faculty, and to a lesser extent white women, are more likely to serve on a much wider range of committees than white men.

Approximately 70% of minority and women faculty reported having been asked to sit on a committee at least once because of their gender or race. Minorities', and to a lesser extent, women's participation in service appears in large part to be the product of an institutional desire to have a diverse set of viewpoints represented in decision-making bodies. Once engaged in service, however, women and minority faculty were more likely than white male faculty to perceive the work as being very productive.

White male faculty appeared to participate in departmental committees and in the types of professional service most closely allied with individual research, e.g., grant review, and reviewing and editing for professional journals. White women were as heavily involved in refereeing journals as men, but not as involved in grant review. Minorities were somewhat less involved in both.

In summary, findings with regard to research, teaching, and service suggest that the most salient differences among the three faculty groups may be in the attitudes they hold. Minority faculty and to some extent female faculty were more likely to place a higher value on teaching, to view their teaching load as an appropriate and productive part of their professional lives, and to believe their service commitments had, in general, contributed to the growth and well-being of the university. On the other hand, women and minority members were more often asked to participate on committees, but no more likely to volunteer than white male faculty. Nor were minority or women faculty likely to allow their research programs to fall into serious neglect to make time for teaching and service. These results are not surprising given that a research university faculty is preselected for ability and interest in research, but do conflict with many commonly held notions about women and minority faculty and their commitment to research.

All three groups of faculty tended to rate research and teaching as ideally of the greatest importance in tenure decisions (with service being less important), reflecting a general consensus among faculty about the goals of the university and their own professional priorities (Table 3). All three faculty groups felt that teaching is currently undervalued by the university, and minority faculty (who carry the heaviest service load) felt service should weigh more heavily, though still only moderately, in tenure criteria.

Career commitment and job satisfaction

Given evidence that women and minorities often lack role models, background and even institutional support for their academic careers, the question of whether they feel less commitment to their careers, and experience less job satisfaction, is a serious one (Baldridge, Curtis, Ecker, & Riley, 1978; Finkelstein, 1984; Rausch, Ortiz, Douthitt, & Reed, 1989).

Findings indicated that virtually all faculty who attain tenure-track positions at a major research university have and maintain a high level of commitment to an academic career. Women and minority faculty were somewhat more likely than white male faculty to experience a shift in the nature of their commitment, however, with a greater current emphasis on research. Whereas most faculty would choose their position again given the opportunity, women and minority faculty were more hesitant than white male faculty to recommend their position to a student or colleague if that person was a woman or member of a minority. Women and minority faculty felt their academic careers and whatever success they had attained were the products of a keen personal interest in their work and their own intrinsic motivation to succeed. Overall data suggest that, despite substantial satisfaction, minority and women faculty remain aware of the personal costs associated with attaining and maintaining their present positions. Although faculty agreed that the campus environment for women and minorities could be improved, no one faculty group appeared significantly more inclined to leave the university than any other. Still, slightly over a third of all faculty described themselves as "somewhat" or "very likely" to seek a new position in the next year.

Global ratings of job satisfaction were consistently strong across the three faculty groups. By and large, faculty were satisfied with their relations with colleagues, their participation in department decision-making, and their recognition within their discipline. Satisfaction with salary was below moderate, and satisfaction with fringe benefits was somewhat above. As in recent studies at other universities, the greatest dissatisfaction was with university

recognition and support, and participation in university decision-making (Carnegie Foundation, 1989; Russell et al., 1990).

Questions about which aspects of academic life faculty find most satisfying and which they find most successful revealed an interesting and important pattern of response. Almost half of white male faculty tended to think of their research as both the most successful and the most satisfying part of their academic lives. In contrast, women and minorities were more likely to distinguish between research as the area of greatest success and other aspects of their academic career as most satisfying (e.g., teaching, students, collegiality).

One possible interpretation of this finding is that minorities and women may simply be more attuned to the satisfactions that come from the more immediate and interpersonal rewards of teaching, students, and colleagues, whereas it is more difficult for men, given their socialization and training, to separate satisfaction and success at a global level. Of the three groups, white women were the most satisfied with the intrinsic rewards of an academic career—the sense of autonomy, accomplishment, and the intellectual opportunities and challenge.

Contrary to what might be expected from the literature, minority and women faculty were as likely as white male faculty to exhibit high levels of commitment and satisfaction. At the same time, important between-group differences underlie the similarities. Women and minorities were as committed to an academic career and to the university as other faculty, but remained cognizant of the difficulties encountered and overcome as nontraditional members of the academic community. Similarly, minority and women faculty demonstrate strong job satisfaction, but are more likely than white male faculty to distinguish between the satisfactions associated with teaching, students, and colleagues, and the success of their research, than white male colleagues.

Balance between work and personal life

Research suggests that both women and minorities experience greater conflict due to the demands of work and nonwork roles than do white male faculty (Aisenberg & Harrington, 1988; Justus et al., 1987; Rausch et al. 1989; Simeone, 1987). Women's childcare and household responsibilities and minority members' ties to their ethnic and racial communities constitute a complex set of demands. By and large, our study demonstrated the same kinds of conflicts for women and underrepresented minorities as found elsewhere. However, white male faculty appeared to be as affected by

work-nonwork conflicts as white women, with more negative consequences for both work and personal life for white men than for any other group.

In this study, a much greater proportion of white male faculty than other faculty were married. In addition, almost a third of white male faculty reported having a spouse who chose not to be employed outside the home, as compared with 4% to 8% of other faculty.

Married faculty and those with young children appeared to experience one set of stresses and strains, while single faculty experience another. Single faculty said that long hours of work, a limited set of social contacts, and a community oriented toward families made for an extremely lonely lifestyle. Several faculty felt the problem to be severe enough to consider seeking a position elsewhere. Minority faculty indicated that because of the small minority community in the area, their career had had significant costs in terms of social relationships, including serious relationships and dating. Married faculty, on the other hand, often faced the difficult problem of finding suitable employment for a spouse. Faculty with young children were also concerned about the availability of quality childcare and what they considered to be the low level of local schools.

Overall findings suggested that minority faculty are more likely to distinguish between personal and professional parts of their life and to become engaged in the life of the community around them. In general, minority members seem more satisfied than other groups with the balance they have struck between the two significant domains of their life. At the same time, it is important to recognize that because of heavy workloads and a small minority community, many minority faculty have made substantial sacrifices in their personal and social life to remain at the university.

White women feel acutely the conflict between personal and professional life. Women appeared to have substantial responsibilities at home, with about half reporting that their personal commitments affect or interfere with career development. A review of the data, suggested, however, that the substantial personal and intellectual satisfaction women derive from their work offsets at least some of the costs and stresses incurred. These findings may help explain why examinations of research productivity in female academics have failed to show expected differences by marital and parental status (Finkelstein, 1984, p. 213; Simeone, 1987, pp. 123-5).

The data on white male faculty are somewhat more difficult to interpret and may reflect the awkwardness many men feel as their roles change vis-a-vis spouses or partners and children. Though white males' involvement with community or family was less clear, they were the group most likely to perceive the reciprocal effects of work and nonwork as negative. Moreover,

white men were least satisfied with the balance between their personal and professional life and found balancing work and personal life as stressful as women did and more stressful than minorities did. It may be that changing expectations of men in the personal and social domain do not mesh well with the faculty model they were socialized to approximate and which still obtains. If so, the future would seem to hold more issues of balance, requiring more personal resources and individual innovation, and ultimately institutional policies and programs that will effectively supplement individual efforts.

Recommendations

The present study suggests that change may be crucial in several areas of academic life, including teaching and service. In addition, policy makers need to consider aspects of academic life and even nonwork life that are not part of a faculty member's formal professional responsibilities, but which affect those responsibilities. Recommendations made by faculty across campus were broad in scope, and the following discussion only covers a subset of the actual proposals made. Many of the recommendations provide useful suggestions for teaching and faculty development, relating to issues varying from faculty recruitment to methods of helping better coordinate work and nonwork life.

Recruiting women and minority faculty. Our research clearly indicated that most minority faculty are recruited through personal contacts. Departments committed to increasing the numbers of women and minorities in their fields will need to make more systematic efforts to pursue contacts at professional meetings, to inquire from colleagues at other universities about senior women and minority graduate students, and to provide funds for potential candidates from traditionally underrepresented groups to visit the university. Some universities are inviting promising young minority graduate students close to completing their degree to spend a semester on their campuses. These programs hope to recruit talented candidates to tenure-track positions.

Helping new faculty adjust. More mentoring of new faculty needs to take place both formally and informally. This is particularly true for women and minority faculty who, in general, receive less social support and who have fewer role models. A two-tiered system of mentoring is suggested: a one-on-one program of mentoring within departments and a series of seminars on topics of concern to untenured faculty sponsored by the Office of Faculty Development. Faculty development seminars would cover general organizational/professional issues (e.g., grantsmanship, institutional structure, procedures and criteria for tenure and promotion, coordinating work

and nonwork life). Senior colleagues would then provide more specific information about departmental structure and expectations and help junior faculty shape a successful program of teaching and research.

All faculty felt that travel to professional conferences is critical to professional development and that present funding levels are inadequate. It is recommended that more generous reimbursement packages be made available, especially at the junior level.

Teaching responsibilities. Despite differences in the emphasis the three groups placed on teaching and research, virtually all faculty felt that teaching should be given more weight in tenure and review decisions. Numerous suggestions were made for increasing faculty satisfaction with teaching, and for communicating greater support for the teaching enterprise. Here are five areas suggested by respondents toward which any program of faculty or teaching development should be oriented: (1) help create evaluation criteria that allows excellent teaching to be better identified and rewarded (e.g., include peer and self-evaluations of teaching); (2) create forums for exchange about teaching so that recognized excellent teachers work with junior colleagues, for example, through team teaching or mentoring; (3) work with departments that now give greater rewards to research to bring teaching back into balance; (4) encourage administration to give all new teachers a one course reduction in load to be spent working with an experienced colleague or Teaching Resources consultant developing course materials and teaching skills; (5) encourage departments to make greater efforts to provide female faculty with opportunities for teaching graduate courses.

Service. All three faculty groups, including white male faculty, perceived women and especially minority faculty as carrying a heavier service load. There appear to be two ways of dealing with this problem, i.e., to reduce the amount of service requested or to give greater credit for service work at review time. Several faculty suggested developing guidelines concerning the number of committee assignments and overall time investment in service obligations asked of faculty.

Administration. One of the most widely endorsed recommendations was to promote greater numbers of women to leadership positions within the university. Such an initiative was seen as part of a larger, more active program of affirmative action—starting with recruiting women and minority faculty and providing adequate guidance and support for tenure and promotion. Indiana University recently sponsored a university-wide symposium on "Women in Administration and Management" to encourage more women to consider a career in administration and to serve as a tangible symbol of the University's commitment to women's advancement. Chancellors and deans

enthusiastically supported the effort by encouraging women from their units to attend.

Collegial relations. Even when formal barriers to a career and professional achievement no longer exist, many informal ones often remain. Some of the most salient and poignant barriers according to women and minority faculty are social in nature: never being invited to lunch or informal gatherings where department business is discussed or failing to have one's views recognized in committees or faculty meetings (see also Rausch et al., 1989; Simeone, 1987). Again, it is important to note a general trend in recent research findings suggesting decreased satisfaction with the level of collegiality. Clearly, there is no easy remedy for such a situation. Respondents suggested that the university expand its support for faculty seminars (e.g., multidisciplinary seminars) and even promote diversity and collegiality as seminar themes. Other university-supported symposia that address issues of concern to women and minority faculty might also encourage social exchange and the formation of informal support groups.

The best antidote for deteriorating collegial relations, however, is department-level efforts to create and maintain an atmosphere of openness, encouragement, and productivity. As part of its Faculty Development Program, the Office for Academic Affairs at Indiana University has recently instituted a series of department-based grants that would provide a department with up to $20,000 to help it articulate and achieve goals, remedy shortcomings, and enhance the sense of coherence and collegiality within the department. Departmental response has been overwhelmingly positive, and interestingly, proposals have focused almost entirely on the enhancement of curriculum and teaching in the department.

Coordinating work and nonwork. Regardless of differences in the specific nature of the conflict between professional and personal life for married and single faculty, the magnitude of the problem appears great. Furthermore, the balance between work and nonwork has implications not only for the individual but for the institution as well, i.e., in terms of morale, productivity, and retention. The kinds of programs that would most assist married faculty appeared to be a spouse employment assistance program, a family leave policy, and expanded childcare facilities. (Far from being a women's issue, work-family conflicts were as salient for men as for women.) Though somewhat different in nature from the types of programs just proposed, faculty also indicated that a more flexible "cafeteria style" benefit package would relieve some of the tensions associated with balancing familial and work roles.

Again, as part of its Faculty Development efforts, the Office for Academic Affairs at Indiana University has begun to work on a variety of institutional programs to help ease some of the conflicts between a successful academic career and the demands of professional life. Since completing the study, the university has instituted the Partner Employment Assistance Program to help faculty partners find employment in the local area. In its first year, the Program has worked with 27 partners and found employment for almost half of them, with another 10%-15% currently interviewing for positions. Additionally, a brochure has been developed to help academically-qualified faculty partners locate and apply for self-subsidizing grant funds through university channels. The administration is currently reviewing a Family Leave Policy for both faculty and staff, and university-sponsored childcare facilities may be expanded over the two years as space from an adjoining public school is vacated.

Single faculty and minority faculty were more likely than other groups to report feeling isolated in a small, "family-oriented" town. One proposal that would both help recruit faculty, especially minority faculty, and facilitate their integration into the local area is to charge a committee or office with responsibility for establishing contacts with organizations, churches, and other key groups in the community. This information could then be used by departments in their recruiting efforts. Optimally, faculty with similar interests would help introduce new colleagues to groups and activities in the community.

In conclusion, our research revealed that minority, white male, and white female faculty overlap broadly in their expectations, goals, and achievements. At the same time, it was also clear that the contributions of different faculty groups to their departments, disciplines, and university vary in important ways, and that this diversity of talents and interests is fundamental to the vitality of the academic community. Thus, although it is critical that all faculty strive for excellence in teaching and research, standards of excellence and routes to its attainment are enriched by differing perspectives. We are only now becoming aware of many of the hidden costs incurred through too exclusive a reliance on any one faculty model. The challenge ahead is to rethink and respond in such a way that all faculty are encouraged to perform to their fullest.

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Managing Diversity Through Faculty Development

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The Changing Demographic Landscape

Few American institutions of higher education have failed to notice the changing demographics of students, faculty, or their communities. Even if a campus is not yet affected, the nation is. Projections for the year 2000 suggest that one-third of all school age children will be from ethnic minorities and by the year 2010, one-third of the nation will be African American, Hispanic, Native American, or from an Asian background (Commission on Minority Participation, 1988). The Asian designation is made further complex by subgroups such as Japanese, Chinese, Vietnamese, Cambodian, Korean, and Pacific Islander; a similar complexity results from Hispanic ethnic and national subcultures (Smith, 1989). African Americans, Hispanics, and Asians are now found in significant numbers in almost every major urban center. Since 1965, 60% of immigrants to the U.S. have been from non-European countries (Madrid, 1989; Estrada, 1988). In brief, we now live in the most demographically diverse nation in the world. The reality of this increasing number of non-white "majorities" has raised concerns about the role that educational institutions must play in upholding the nation's commitment to equality of opportunity. Further, it has raised concerns about the effectiveness of the educational process for both minority and majority students.

Colleges and universities have begun discussing the implications of diversity and multiculturalism on their campuses, as well as in specific educational programs. Many have gone beyond engaging in intellectual exchange, to implementing far-reaching, sometimes controversial, master plans and curriculum changes to develop faculty and student awareness of the meaning of ethnic and cultural pluralism in American society (Shalala,

1989). Others have moved from theory to practice by initiating systematic programs to change practices in teaching and learning to respond to the multicultural classroom (Morrison and Vom Saal, 1990). Through these efforts and those now in progress, there is little doubt that the face of higher education will change drastically by the year 2000.

Educational systems have made three types of responses to diversity. One is to ignore the demographic trends and believe that in time the situation will resolve itself. Another is to identify those specific aspects of diversity that will enable the system to respond sensibly to the changes that diversity brings to an individual campus. The third, and the most visionary, is to recognize the rich potential that the new diversity can bring to a university for transforming and redefining its mission and traditions, using the opportunity to strengthen its ability to respond to what will be the major challenge of the 21st century—that of creating and maintaining a sense of community within the cultural plurality of the campus.

Whether an institution responds only in part, (e.g., through course revision, aggressive minority student recruitment) or comprehensively (e.g., through re-examining mission, priorities, policy) the proposed changes need to be predicated on a contextual master plan with outcomes going beyond response to a crisis. If the impetus for change comes only from the need to pacify a minority or diffuse a crisis on campus, such initiatives may receive faculty support only until the crisis passes. Gains will be superficial and short-lived.

Our thesis suggests that colleges and universities must respond *comprehensively* to the moral, social, and political issues of diversity and multiculturism *as they affect the individual institution.* Responses, whether quick or measured, must take the form of programs and an implementation process that are compatible with the individualized needs of a particular campus. Success may depend less on a program here or an activity there with interested departments, than on a sense of overall priority and a systematic effort on a united front.

A number of challenges accompany such a comprehensive approach. The first is to assess the campus cultural climate in order to define the diversity issues and the operating assumptions about diversity relevant to the institution. Will diversity agendas include ethnic minorities? cultural differences? non-traditional students? gender and alternative lifestyle issues?

The second challenge is the development of criteria to guide program development. Since campuses differ in their philosophical stance, historical development, and geographic character, their definitions and responses widely vary and their program options differ. For example, on some cam-

puses, increasing the number of minority students and staff may be a serious first step. Creating a campus environment free of racial tension and violent eruptions may take priority among the changes to be made. On other campuses, the challenge may be in managing existing diversity to enrich the social and academic experience of students and faculty.

The third challenge is to consider whether special new programs must be developed or whether integrating new initiatives into existing structures may have the highest chance for success and impact. In this context, the questions can evolve into specific strategies. Which new programs should be developed? Which ongoing programs can be modified to include the new emphasis? What resources can be shifted to accommodate and highlight new priorities? Mission and goal statements, naturally, will have to be modified to add new perspectives and to allow for new practices. No matter how the questions are answered, the clear message to the campus community must be that dealing with diversity is simply part of the normal business of the university and basic to the commitment to educational opportunity and excellence.

The Traditional Role of Educational Institutions

American educational institutions have always played a major role in socializing diverse immigrant populations from Europe and Asia by providing a common language, a set of democratic ideals, and a capitalist promise of success through education and hard work. Common values were expected to forge diverse groups into a unified whole. "Minority" became a term distinguishing the yet unmelted or those who by virtue of their "native" status remained unassimilated. Because as a nation we are still much divided by ethnic, cultural, and religious groups, by gender, sexual orientation, language differences, and physical abilities, the metaphor has shifted from melting pot to stew, or even salad.

More and more the new language of education, while seemingly inclusive, still focuses on the "other." Now we have the new immigrant, the non-traditional student, the alternative lifestyle. Women students are now the majority on most campuses, but the white male minority has the power. People of color are regarded as minorities in classification systems to determine affirmative action goals, yet are majorities in many geographical areas. Thus, minority and majority are essentially social and political designations shifting with the progress and power of the individuals or groups that use the terms. For educators, rather than continued discussion of the semantics, the choice should be to shift focus to the visionary aspects of the diversity

issues—that is, the recognition and the celebration of the richness of diversity.

The Role of Faculty Development Programs on a Multicultural Campus

Faculty will always be a key element in implementing academic changes; administrative or legal mandates rarely transform campus climate, teaching, or learning. To effect changes in curriculum, educational policy and practices, or student support services attuned to the changing needs of a diverse campus, the faculty must have an awareness level equal to the task of bridging the very different perceptions of reality and experience held by members of different ethnic and racial groups on a campus. They must have equal commitment to supporting change through *normal collegial processes*. A campus culture that acknowledges and respects diversity can also include tolerance for controversy that often grows out of rising expectations and which may be a genuine search for understanding and respect for differences (Weiner, 1990).

Managing diversity through alteration of the campus culture and values can, thus, be seen as an *organizational, faculty, and staff development initiative*. A key strategy, then, is to infuse and integrate the search for equity and excellence into the normal development practices of a campus. Including activities to expand knowledge and awareness of diversity issues is a natural emphasis for development programs; most professionals are more likely to participate in training when it involves changes they need to deal with in their professional capacities. While faculty are often reluctant to admit they require teaching development, even in the face of new pedagogical and technological advances, they face more readily the fact that social issues do influence the curriculum, student learning, and their own effectiveness. Regular professional development programs offered to faculty may wholly, or in part, deal with multicultural issues. (For our emphasis here we have not included the multicultural curriculum, which is a complex issue in itself.) The following traditional faculty development activities can include multicultural aspects.

- **New Faculty Orientation**

Faculty are generally recruited from a national pool and may come to a campus from a different geographical region or a foreign country. They have varying degrees of experience with local multicultural issues. How can we orient newcomers to the new campus climate, demographic profile, and the

diversity issues as part of the positive activities associated with department and campus orientations, rather than when problems arise? How can we help new faculty develop self-awareness and culturally-sensitive teaching strategies? How can we motivate senior faculty to mentor new women and minority faculty beyond orientation? How can we make department chairs aware of the crucial initial years in the retention of minority faculty?

- **Teaching Assistant Training**

Teaching assistants also may come to a campus from various national or international settings. Changing from student to quasi-faculty status may require cultural as well as psychological reorientation. How can we orient new TAs to the campus environment so they become culturally and ethnically sensitive peers and instructors? How can we help international TAs become more aware of peculiarly American issues reflecting the new demographics, gender issues, and ethnic and cultural minorities? How can we use TAs to enrich the experiences of minority students in undergraduate courses?

- **Department Chair Leadership Development**

Departmental administrators are the crucial link between campus initiatives and faculty involvement. The chair sets the tone for faculty expectations and monitors performance. How can we help chairs develop their own cultural sensitivity and intercultural communication skills? How can we encourage chairs to evolve strategies to facilitate faculty discussions of the issues of multiculturalism in curriculum and teaching practices?

- **Instructional Development Programs**

Entering a multicultural classroom poses challenges for any professor, new or experienced, who may encounter a student body different from the one he or she has expected. How can teaching enhancement programs deal with culturally-oriented classroom behaviors, learning styles, course content expectations, and faculty-student communication and interaction? How can a teaching development program help faculty modify courses to include multicultural themes and content? How can course content and teaching strategies help students from various cultural backgrounds interact so that their experiences enrich rather than compete?

- **Incentive and Reward Programs**

Traditional merit, promotion, and tenure systems generally undervalue faculty efforts for teaching and curriculum innovation. How can we adapt these collegial incentives and rewards to encourage and value faculty who

make substantial changes in their interaction with students, teaching methods, and courses in an attempt to enhance the learning of mutlicultural, multiethnic, and non-traditional students? What other rewards, valued by the campus, can highlight success in these areas? Can institutional funding be reoriented toward grants and awards in these areas to show administrative commitment to change?

- **Classroom/Campus Research**

Each campus in its own way is a living laboratory for research in teaching and learning. How can we support and reward faculty research on teaching and learning on a multicultural campus that leads us toward a clearer understanding of successful teaching strategies, student learning styles, and compatible classroom environments? How can we better evaluate teaching and classroom practice to ensure meeting the needs of women and minority students?

One Institution's Response: The University of Hawaii

Deriving from Hawaii's multicultural heritage and location as an island community at the crossroads of the Pacific, diversity is the most distinctive feature of the University of Hawaii. The University has capitalized on its diversity as a natural resource for curriculum, international programs, research, and service. Over 400 courses have some multicultural or ethnic focus; there are more languages taught here than in any other institution, including some Asian and Pacific ones taught no where else. The University's strategic plan (1987-91), its educational development plan (1991-96), and its accreditation self-study (1989-90) all take managing diversity as their major themes.

On the face of it, the University's academic community is more ethnically diverse than most institutions. However, even on a multicultural campus, diversity means differences, and differences can result in conflict displayed through intolerance, competition, and stymied growth. While the student statistics are impressive—25.5% Japanese, 23.5% Caucasian, 12.1% Filipino, 9.5% Hawaiian, 16.4% other Asian and Pacific Islander—a closer look reveals striking socioeconomic differences and under-representation in the community, and, indeed, within different segments of the campus. Native Hawaiians and Filipinos, the fastest growing groups in the State of Hawaii, are under-represented.

By contrast, the faculty still reflects national norms, being predominantly male and white. The majority of academic administrators (deans, research directors, and department chairs) are also white. While the percentage of women full professors is only 9% (unchanged since the 1960's), hiring is bringing more women into the pipeline. In fall 1990, 41% of the new tenure track assistant professors were female and 22% were members of minority groups.

In this setting, there is understanding that differences and conflicts based on gender, ethnicity, and culture need to be acknowledged and addressed. Affirmative action measures to improve diversity among students and faculty continue and the improvements in the academic climate are expected to reflect the University's mission statement and values concerning diversity in such a way that an ethos of diversity becomes a constituent of the intellectual experience of students, faculty, and staff (UHM Accreditation Self-Study, 1990).

Expecting to play a pivotal role in the climate and value changes, the Office of Faculty Development and Academic Support has begun to integrate diversity issues into nearly all of its development and support programs for faculty. The office hopes that the cumulative effect of a menu of different activities to reach individuals and groups of faculty will secure the essential awareness of change and enrich the institutional culture.

New Faculty Orientation

New faculty orientation comprises the traditional introduction to the campus's key administrative offices, its resources for teaching, and its in-house research support. The general orientation covers the global topics and campus concerns that transcend departmental affiliations; colleges and departments conduct internal orientations on matters of particular disciplinary concern such as research, tenure, and promotion. One full day is now spent on "cross-cultural awareness and cultural diversity: faculty and students on a multicultural campus." Presentations on campus demographics, cultural interactions, and curriculum and climate implications prepare new faculty for experiential activities designed to help them identifty their own cultural, racial, gender orientations. Senior and junior faculty, as well as students, take an active role in discussion groups and activities. New faculty report having both traumatic and confirming reactions to examining the issues, but also report an encouraging growth in awareness. In fall 1990 about one-half the new assistant professors (space was limited and not all volunteers could be accommodated) followed up initial orientation activities with an eight-session series on teaching skills, including dealing with specific

cultural aspects of teaching practice, student learning styles, and classroom problems.

Teaching Assistant Training

Teaching assistant training is approached much like new faculty orientation. Few TAs have prior teaching experience so emphasis is placed on skill development, managing classrooms, and orientation to student resources. About one-half of the TAs are international students and one-third come from Hawaii's ethnic minorities. Orientation sessions include discussions of campus demographics, sensitivity to gender and ethnic issues, as well as experiential activities to develop awareness of differences in students and in the TA's own cultural orientation. Senior TAs, including one who specializes in working with international students, are assigned follow-up responsibilities with first-year students. Plans are to have new TAs work more closely with special underrepresented minority student programs (Operation Manong for Filipinos and Operation Kua'ana for Hawaiians).

Junior Faculty Mentoring Program

A Junior Faculty Mentoring Program began in fall 1990 with special emphasis on women assistant professors. The activities are multi-level to bring the widest resources to support the retention of junior and minority women faculty. Colleague-pairing of junior and senior women comprises the first level, with an additional separate monthly group meeting for mentors and mentees, and directed workshops on career-mapping, research funding and collaboration, and working with department chairs and writing groups. Informal lunches and social activities are scheduled for the junior cohort to provide opportunity for wider interaction with senior men and women faculty. As yet the new minority faculty are few and a separate program has not been needed. If desired, efforts are made to pair new faculty with a member of the same ethnic group.

Educational Improvement Fund

The Educational Improvement Fund provides monies for individual faculty grants to revise, develop, and enrich the curriculum, the process and evaluation of teaching, or student academic support projects. Annual priorities are set by the Vice Presidents for Academic and Student Affairs so that funds can make a major impact in one area of development. The current topic is "Excellence Through Diversity: Promoting an Understanding of Diversity Through the University Curriculum and Co-Curricular Activities." Thirty-four faculty are currently working on projects related to the diversity theme.

The usual grants are $2,000 to $5,000. Grantees meet for progress reports and cross-fertilization of ideas during the grant year and a final report is published and widely distributed by OFDAS. A five-year follow-up study on the impact of these grants on the core curriculum, teaching practices, and student learning is underway.

Faculty and Staff Professional Development Travel Fund

Likewise, the Faculty and Staff Professional Development Travel Fund gives priority for grants to faculty and academic administrators who attend conferences or training sessions involving multicultural themes. Grantees are expected to share the information via presentations in their departments or through the Center for Teaching Excellence. Faculty inquiry groups, one of the most popular Center activities, have incorporated multicultural and diversity issues into sessions about student learning styles, collaborative learning, and student awareness of diversity.

Center for Studies in Multicultural Higher Education

Supporting faculty classroom and campus-based research on multicultural issues is the major role of the Center for Studies in Multicultural Higher Education, another unit under the Office of Faculty Development and Academic Support. The Center provides diversity awareness training for faculty and departments based on current research in the field and commissions faculty research on topics that will provide information about cultural aspects of teaching methods, student learning climate, and retention of minority students. The Center publishes an annual directory of faculty involved in this research agenda as a means of fostering interchange and research collaboration. During spring 1991, the center cosponsored a conference with the writing program on "Academic Literaries in Multicultural Higher Education," with over one hundred fifty campus and visiting faculty and students attending.

Conclusion

While each of these activities is a traditional one in faculty development, and each has independent goals, we hope that the long-range impact will come from the cumulative effect of addressing diversity issues in a variety of ways and in a range of programs. The campus climate benefits from this normalcy. These are, simply, part of the institutional values expressed through emphasis in faculty professional development and academic support.

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Instructional Development Programs for International TAs: A Systems Analysis Approach

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Introduction

Instructional development programs for international teaching assistants cut across many lines of authority and power in a research university. The person who designs, implements, and administers an ITA development program may take actions that are seen as interfering with the work of individuals who are not used to such interference: graduate deans, research faculty, and department chairs are accustomed to making decisions about graduate students in certain ways. ITA training may require changes in those traditions and even in regulations. For example, if research faculty are accustomed to selecting their assistants on the basis of research potential, they may not understand the need for anyone else to have any influence on the selection

process—much less someone coming from ESL or instructional development. Or, if research faculty have in the past had total control over the schedules of their graduate students, they may not understand immediately that the ITA training program has prior claim on the time of the ITA.

Many ESL and instructional development specialists may not be aware of the structure and culture of the larger institution in which they work or of the structure and culture of academic specialties other than their own. If these specialists are charged with developing ITA training programs, they can have problems resulting from their lack of knowledge of the institution. These problems may include (1) providing inappropriate training for teaching and (2) poor communication with the academic departments. The remedy we are suggesting for these problems is study: (1) study of the structure of U.S. research universities, (2) study of the particular institution, (3) study of particular departments, and (4) study of the teaching styles and traditions of particular professions.

The literature developed in higher education administration (for example, Kuh & Whitt, 1988), in various ethnographic studies of higher education (for example, Rounds, 1985, 1987), and in strategic planning (Bryson, 1988) suggest the culture audit and the environmental scan as effective methods for institutional analysis. We are not recommending that ITA program administrators develop a new academic specialty, but rather that they use these methods for their own education so they can better design programs to fit the needs of their particular institution and its academic departments.

The strategic planning process generally includes a step known as the "environmental scan" (Bryson, 1988). Through study of a system's context using the methods developed for strategic planning, administrators can learn about and even anticipate the impact of forces from outside the system. If the university has carried out a self-study recently, that study is likely to contain significant information about the institution's environment. Moreover, the study will probably discuss the methods used by the institution to prepare the environmental scan, valuable information on this important process. Individuals directing programs within a university can also benefit from studying their own environments, both the institutional setting and forces from outside the institution that influence their units. For example, an ITA program could be influenced by attitudes of state legislators or parents of undergraduates toward ITAs; at the same time, the ITA program will be under pressure from forces within an institution, including graduate faculty and the ITAs themselves. Accreditation and professional organizations can also impose standards that the system must find ways to meet. The popularity and status of the institution can influence the flow of resources into the system.

A Research University as a System

To illustrate the complexity of a university, Kells (1988) compares its operational and governance system to that of a factory. Management and workers in a factory generally understand the purpose of the factory—to produce bread or cars, for example. Agreement also exists on the raw materials that must be brought into the system and on the products that flow out of the system. If the products do not meet expectations, finding the problem in the system or in the raw materials is a fairly straightforward process of getting better flour or steel or of improving the performance of machinery or workers. In addition, those people involved with the factory generally agree on who their customers are.

In contrast, university faculty, administrators, and students all have differing views of the purpose of the university—teaching undergraduates, teaching graduate students, service, research, and differing views of the university's customers—the public, students, faculty members, the professions. When there is unhappiness about the products of the system (poor students, nonsensical research), agreement is difficult to negotiate on the causes of the problems because of the disagreements on purposes and methods.

In sum, a modern U.S. research university is a complex system made up of intertwined units that are in competition with each other for resources and that disagree about purposes and methods. Moreover, they differ in the status and power they have within the larger system. A graphic representation of the system (see Figure 1) would show many independent units, some more important and more powerful than others.

Another important feature of this system is that it is only superficially hierarchical. The president and academic vice president do have a great deal of power over the individual units, especially through the control of the flow of resources to the departments. However, faculty members (especially graduate research professors) have tremendous independence provided by the tenure system that has evolved to protect the freedom of thought and freedom of action of faculty members. A president, vice president, or graduate dean who wants an ITA training program can have difficulty forcing department chairs or graduate faculty to support the program, unless he/she controls resources (funding for assistantships, for example) or can persuade the department that support of ITA training is to the benefit of the department and/or the individual faculty member.

Thus, the ITA program administrator will usually function within a system that can be graphically represented as a box containing many smaller boxes (Figure 1). Some of the smaller boxes are tied together (into colleges

or professional subgroups within a single college). Some of the boxes are located on the far side of the system and have no (or few) connections to the other boxes—these unconnected and un-powerful units could be labeled ESL or instructional development.

Some of the boxes represent traditional barriers to the flow of students through the system: the English Department blocking students from Engineering, for example, or, the Mathematics Department controlling flow into Business. The ITA program is to be inserted into this system in a similar fashion and can be pictured either as a filter or a roadblock depending on the design and role of the ITA program. The organized chaos within the box is constantly being influenced by forces outside the boxes, shown graphically by arrows that represent the public, the professions, and accreditation agencies.

When students flow into a university system, they find inside many different units, many with little or no connection to each other. To exit the system, students must work their way through the maze of boxes. Administrators who establish new programs must find out as much as possible about the units that make up the larger system and decide on the most appropriate location for their new unit.

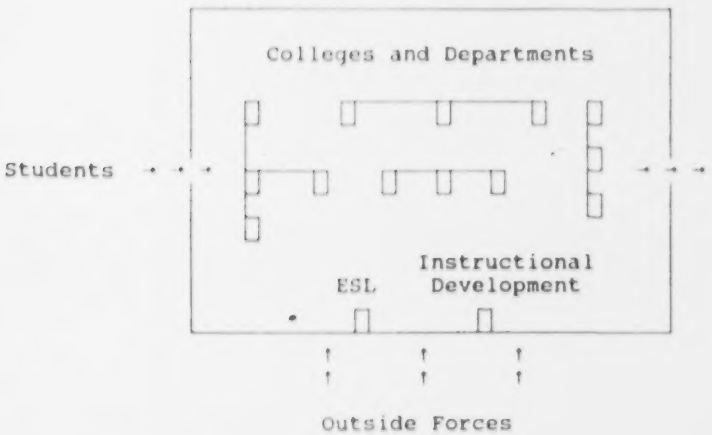


FIGURE 1: The University as a System

The Culture Audit

The University as a System

What can we do to gain a better sense of the structure and the values of our own institutions? While the culture audit is a more highly refined process than most ITA administrators will have time to undertake, certain of its analytical approaches can be of immediate use. What follows is a listing of artifacts that can be collected and analyzed for better understanding of the structure and values that control actions within a particular institution (Kuh & Whitt, 1988).

1. An official organization chart. This chart describes the line of command within the institution, its official ordering of power. It should be remembered, however, that a university is not an army; higher administrators do more persuading than ordering.

2. The most recent undergraduate and graduate catalogs. What does the university state as its mission? How does it explain its history? Is anything said about research objectives? Is anything said about international connections or dimensions? What does the catalog look like? Who is pictured on the front? Georgia State University has a separate graduate catalog for each of its colleges, a clear statement about the independence of each college. Auburn University's 1989-90 Undergraduate Bulletin shows a young white man bicycling down a tree-lined street in front of a building of Greek revival design. Its Graduate Bulletin for the same year shows an older man standing on the front porch of a red brick building talking with a younger man of somewhat Asian features; behind the two men you can see four students of graduate school age walking through a park-like area of green grass and trees. What does this research university think are the differences between undergraduate and graduate education?

3. The most recent self-study document; for example, an accreditation self-report.

4. Brochures used by the institution for recruiting students and for advertising programs. What is it proud of?

5. Slogans and colors. How does the institution view itself?

6. Student course evaluation forms. What seems to matter in classroom teaching and relationships with students?

7. Campus maps. How does the university/college organize itself? Who gets the most space? Where are the various units located in relation to each other? At the University of Wyoming, the fine arts building is located in a section of the campus far removed from the rest; its location may be one indication of the relation of the performing arts to the rest of the University.

8. Student, faculty, and staff newspapers. What are the big stories?

9. Rituals and programming used to mark divisions of the year. What kinds of celebrations tie the community together? For that matter, is the community tied together? Does the law school have separate celebrations from the rest of the university?

10. Demographic information on undergraduate students. Where do they come from? How old are they? What do they study? Sexes? Races?

11. Heroes. Are any founders still remembered? For what actions or characteristics? Is anyone more famous than the football coach?

ITA Program Design

As program directors develop a clearer understanding of the nature of their own institution—who the students are, how the institution is organized, who holds the power, where support for the program lies, what the traditions and accepted practices are—they can begin to address program issues. Some of the issues that must be considered are program design, curriculum design, program implementation, and assessment. There are three commonly used program designs in ITA training: *orientation,pre-term/pre-teach*, and *concurrent* (Constantinides, 1987) (see Figure 2). Since institutions have unique characteristics, the program should be designed in accordance with the needs and resources of that institution.

Orientation

Orientation programs may be either pre-term or concurrent with the term. Pre-term orientations usually last from 1-5 days and are sometimes part of a general orientation for all new TAs. Pre-term orientation programs have several advantages. They are relatively inexpensive and are logistically simpler to arrange than longer pre-term programs. Stipends for participants are not generally required, nor are special housing arrangements. A great deal of information can be presented in a short time, although the content must be carefully selected.

There are also drawbacks. New TAs are often also new students and have many new-student tasks to perform. They must register and prepare for their own classes. They are often overwhelmed by the amount of information provided in the orientation and have very little time to assimilate it. Newly arrived students often have not had time to accustom themselves to American English or unfamiliar accents. The length of the program is generally insufficient to effect any needed changes in pronunciation or to address other language related issues, nor is there time for students to do teaching simula-

tions or practice their presentation skills. There are also no classes in session for them to observe.

Concurrent orientations take place during the TAs' first semester of teaching, allowing the students more time to assimilate the material. Some schools also plan TA retreats or other support system projects as a part of the orientation. One major problem with concurrent programs is that the students may be teaching without adequate preparation and training. Another drawback is that TAs are often reluctant to devote an appropriate amount of time to the program since orientation programs carry no credit and are scheduled on top of a TA's otherwise heavy teaching and course load.

Pre-term/Pre-teach

'A second type of program is the pre-term/pre-teach design, which may be offered either for credit or for no credit. Pre-term programs are usually a minimum of two weeks, with three weeks being a popular length. Advantages of this design include having more time for instruction and development of teaching techniques, time to address a range of language issues, time to evaluate students' abilities more thoroughly, and time for the students to present lessons in a variety of contexts.

The primary disadvantages are logistical and financial. Such programs often involve expenses for housing and food, and stipends for participants, in addition to instructional, clerical, and equipment costs. Often there are no classes for participants to observe during the pre-term session, which is commonly held in August. However, this disadvantage can be overcome somewhat by having a follow-up program in the fall semester to provide observation opportunities and to monitor the students' progress in the classroom. Because of its length and intensity, this design may also be more difficult to coordinate if large numbers of TAs are involved.

Concurrent

The third type of design is concurrent, i.e., a program that occurs during the regular semester. These programs sometimes run every term and may be credit or non-credit. Students may participate prior to any teaching assignment or, in some programs, during their first semester of teaching. Concurrent programs differ from concurrent orientations in length and in the type and amount of instruction provided. Logistically, concurrent programs present fewer problems in terms of housing and staff than do pre-term programs. Courses are available for participants to observe, the pace is not as intense as in a pre-term program, and participants have ample time to prepare practice presentations and effect changes in both their language and teaching skills.

Students will have more enthusiasm for participation, practice, and change in a credit course than a non-credit one.

Concurrent programs are not suitable for all institutions. Some universities offer assistantships to new ITAs who must assume their teaching duties during their first semester on campus. If students are to be assessed and trained prior to teaching, then a concurrent design would not be advisable.

There are additional variables that would affect the choice of program design, e.g., availability and training of staff and other resources. If a program is to have a segment to work on pronunciation, a faculty member must be available with appropriate education and experience to design and teach an effective course. If videotaping of microteaching is to be done, the program must have video equipment readily available.

Curriculum Design

The next element to consider is curriculum design. Although most programs include aspects of language, culture, and pedagogy, the exact structure of a curriculum will be determined by institutional needs and program design.

Many institutions speak of the "ITA problem" as a problem of pronunciation. Pronunciation has become the cover term for a whole range of linguistic, pedagogical, and cultural behaviors that may be new to our students. An overriding issue in the language curriculum must be to determine whether or not we can establish threshold proficiency for ITAs appropriate to the tasks they are to perform.

	Sessions	Length	Credit/ No credit
Orientation			
Pre-term	Usually August	1-5 days	No credit
Concurrent	Any term	Semester	No credit
Pre-term/Pre-teach	Usually August	2-3 weeks	Either
Concurrent			
Pre-teach	Any term	Semester	Either
While teaching	Any term	Semester	Either

FIGURE 2: Common Program Designs

In addition to pronunciation, there are other aspects of language proficiency that need to be addressed. The language curriculum may also focus on the identification of key vocabulary and linguistic routines and functions specific to various disciplines. Other variables, such as listening comprehension, stress, intonation and rhythm patterns, fluency, and overall comprehensibility might be considered. Goals and objectives should be consistent with the constraints of the program design. For example, it is unrealistic to expect global changes in pronunciation after a three week pre-term course, whereas significant improvement in listening comprehension is possible.

In teaching pedagogy, there are several key questions to consider. Is there a set of teaching behaviors common to "good" teachers across disciplines? What are they? How do we identify these characteristics within the context of a specific institution? How important are questioning and interaction techniques, and how can we teach strategies for repairing flawed communication? If ESL teachers are the primary instructors in an ITA program, they must exercise special care to teach behaviors that are appropriate to the physics lab or the economics or business lecture hall.

Cross-cultural variables will also affect communication in the classroom, and most programs include a strong cultural component. In most ITA programs, culture must be defined more broadly than social traditions. It is important that ITAs and TA trainers understand the institutional culture and the subcultures of the disciplines. An understanding of the classroom culture of American undergraduates is also vital. Care should be taken that trainers have (or have had) regular contact with American undergraduates in order that an accurate picture of the classroom be painted for the ITAs.

An emerging and controversial issue in ITA training is that of orienting American students to ITAs. Such orientation might include information about ITAs' backgrounds and general academic credentials, information on ITA training programs at the school, issues in international education, and strategies for interacting more effectively with ITAs. Part of the frustration of undergraduates with ITAs appears to be a sense of powerlessness—not knowing what to do or how to interact with persons different from themselves. An orientation program could serve to alleviate some of their anxiety and improve communication in the classroom. However, some program administrators might be reluctant to suggest such an orientation out of concern that drawing attention to their ITAs in this way would create some hostility or negative reactions. It is advisable that directors have a good sense of how an orientation would be received on their campuses before recommending this.

Program Implementation

Besides program and curriculum design, there are pragmatic considerations regarding program implementation. The success of a program may ultimately rest on how it is implemented. Implementation issues, in particular, must be approached in accordance with an analysis of each institution. Some of these pragmatic considerations are *funding, scheduling, staffing, administrative location,* and *evaluation of program effectiveness.*

- Funding for the program is a major issue. In some states, state appropriated funds cannot be used to finance ITA programs. In such cases, programs may be funded by student services fees, interest income, or even by locally funded Intensive English Programs. It is important to clarify both the source and adequacy of available funds, since this will affect most decisions about program design. (See Byrd, Smith, and Constantinides, 1990, for a detailed discussion of funding practices.)
- Scheduling is another possible source of trouble. For example, pre-term programs should be timed to occur when housing and dining facilities are available. All types of non-credit ITA programs may have problems getting classroom space at convenient times, since credit courses may have priority.
- Staffing decisions must also be based on design decisions and institutional resources. A few universities have hired people for the specific purpose of implementing an ITA program; others use available staff. Program directors are generally from the fields of ESL, instructional development, speech communication, or some combination of disciplines. Staff responsibilities *vis-à-vis* other teaching assignments or administrative duties need to be clearly defined.

The choice of a program director is of utmost importance to the credibility of the ITA program. A successful program director will be able to balance the legitimate needs of various constituencies and still maintain adequate standards. Through close cooperation and interaction with ITA faculty supervisors and administrators, the program director will enhance the credibility of the program within the institutional setting. In order to accomplish this, of course, the director must have a clear and comprehensive view of the institution, the kind of view that can be obtained through the culture audit or environmental scan discussed earlier.

- The administrative location of a program may have a tremendous impact on the success of that program. Programs housed within a single department, e.g., Chemistry, will not have the influence, funding, or credibility of programs housed within the graduate school or the provost's office.

The best location for a program is the one that gives the greatest authority, visibility, credibility, and funding. This will clearly vary from institution to institution.

- Another implementation issue is how best to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. Common measures include feedback from the participants, program instructors, departments, and undergraduate students. Follow-up programs may also provide a vehicle for evaluating program effectiveness in that classroom observations can indicate whether the desired outcomes of the program were achieved.

Issues in ITA Assessment

A final critical component of ITA programs is assessment. Several types of assessment may be done: the most common are screening, placement, diagnosis, progress, and exit (final evaluation). Screening instruments may come at the beginning or end of a training program, and are used to separate those ITAs who can go into the classroom from those who are not yet ready. Placement testing serves the needs of those who require additional language instruction prior to ITA training; diagnostic testing helps instructors optimize their teaching. Progress tests help trainers know if the participants are improving. And exit tests are final measures of achievement.

ITA Tests

ITA tests commonly assess English language skills, presentation skills, classroom management skills, public speaking skills, and knowledge of the American classroom culture. The ideal ITA test should be oral, interactive, and relevant. Further, the test should be valid, reliable, practical, and suitable for making recommendations. Validity means making the test relevant to the task. To improve reliability, there should be multiple ratings, trained raters, and consistent, standardized test administration and scoring. A practical test is basically the best test obtainable within the restrictions of the program budget and the time allotted for testing purposes.

There are four types of ITA tests commonly used: pre-recorded speaking tests, oral interviews, oral communicative performance tests, and teaching simulations.

1. Pre-recorded Speaking Tests

A pre-recorded audio or video test is usually administered to a group rather than an individual. Student responses are recorded for subsequent rating. An example of an audio test designed for group administration is the

SPEAK (Speaking Proficiency English Assessment Kit), with audiotaped student responses. An example of an oral assessment test with video-recorded responses is the COVIS test (Council of International Educational Exchange Video Interview Service). This test features audiotaped questions, but videotapes the subject's responses for evaluation. Another variety of oral assessment test used by the University of Michigan ITA Battery presents the testee with videotaped prompts, the responses to which are audiotaped for later evaluation.

A pre-recorded test with audio responses, such as the SPEAK, has one major advantage. Because it is usually given to a group, not much time is required to administer the test. The SPEAK has multiple forms and includes rater-training materials and testing materials in readily available kit form.

There are also several disadvantages to this type of test. The test has low face validity since it is not very relevant to actual FTA tasks, such as teaching skills, public speaking skills, and other language skills. There is no interaction in the test, and it has poor flexibility with regard to test administration time, test format, proficiency level adjustment, or adjustment for individual needs such as nervousness or illness. Also, since subjective scoring is required, raters must have a high level of expertise, which requires advance training. Finally, the cost of equipment to administer the test can be substantial in that a language laboratory facility is generally required.

2. Oral Interviews

Oral interviews are most often formalized conversational one-on-one formats, with student responses usually recorded for later rating. Generally, the interviewer gives the student a series of questions to be answered. Examples are the FSI (Foreign Service Institute) Interview, the Ilyin Oral Interview, and the ELTA (English Language Testing Associates) Oral Interview.

The oral interview is fairly flexible with regard to the time needed for administration, although if large numbers are being tested, total administration time could be quite long. The test format is very flexible, allowing for both proficiency level adjustment and individual needs. The cost of equipment needed to administer the test is low, and test materials are readily available.

The oral interview, however, is not very relevant to ITA tasks, and although there is some interaction, it does not usually simulate realistic classroom interaction. The face validity is marginal, and raters need a high level of expertise to score the interview.

3. Oral Communicative Performance Tests

The oral communicative performance test is a set of predetermined tasks involving oral skills generally required of classroom teachers. Tasks may include pronouncing technical terms from one's academic field, reading aloud, making classroom announcements, explaining a technical reading, and engaging in role play involving common teaching-related experiences. Student responses are recorded for later rating. Examples are the University of Michigan ITA Test, the UCLA Oral Proficiency Test, the Michigan State University ITA Test, and the Georgia State University ITA Test. The Georgia State University test combines the results of the oral performance test with the SPEAK.

Oral communicative performance tests overcome some of the disadvantages of the SPEAK test and the oral interview. They have greater relevance to ITA tasks, involve more realistic interaction, and have good face validity. The tests are flexible with regard to administration time, test format, and attention to student needs. Some of the disadvantages of the oral communicative performance test include a longer administration time, questionable availability of rater training and test materials, little flexibility in proficiency level adjustment, and a high level of expertise needed by scorers. The cost of the equipment will vary, depending on whether the test is videotaped or audiotaped.

4. Teaching Simulations

The final type of commonly used ITA test is the teaching simulation. Here, students make a formalized teaching presentation designed to emulate classroom teaching, with or without an audience (a simulated "class"). The simulation is usually videotaped for subsequent rating. One of the most well-known examples is the Iowa State University ITA test, the TEACH, which is used in conjunction with the SPEAK.

The teaching simulation also has strengths and weaknesses. It has high relevance to ITA tasks and high face validity. There is realistic interaction if an audience is present, and the individual administration time may be quite flexible. Total administration time would vary according to the number of ITAs tested. Usually, the simulation and the oral communicative performance test require the greatest amount of total test administration time.

Because of the nature of the teaching simulation, however, there is limited flexibility in format, proficiency level adjustment, or attention to individual needs. The cost of videotaping equipment must also be considered. Raters require a high level of expertise since scoring is also subjective.

Finally, there is somewhat limited availability of test and rater training materials.

The type of assessment chosen by an institution is most often determined on the basis of program design and goals, availability and training of staff, and adequate financial resources. Program directors should review their assessment annually and modify the process in response to changing needs and the adequacy of the results.

Models of ITA Assessment

All aspects of the assessment process contribute to the perceived effectiveness and credibility of the program; therefore, program directors must carefully integrate assessment policies into the overall program design. Screening, diagnosis, placement, progress, and exit evaluations must all mesh with the goals, resources, and structure of the program. The models of ITA assessment shown in Flow Charts I, II, and III (see following page) are meant to be illustrative of three types of successful systems in use today. However, other successful models are available as well.

The assessment model described in Flow Chart I assumes that there is an on-campus ITA program with a large number of prospective ITAs. There are frequent administrations of the testing instruments, and an on-campus Intensive English Program. The same type of test is used for screening, placement, and exit (final evaluation), but the content of each test varies.

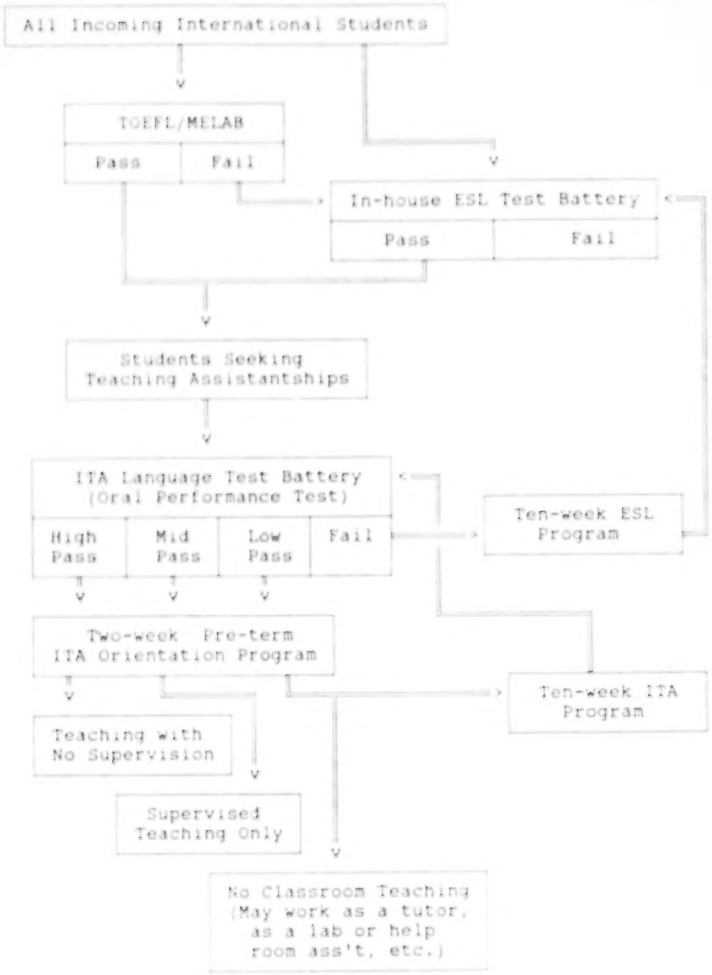
The assessment model shown in Flow Chart II is suitable for a program that has a relatively small number of prospective ITAs. There is limited access to ESL training. Assessment is conducted using various means during the course of the training program. Several tests are used for screening and exit.

Flow Chart III models a system used with a large number of prospective ITAs. There is an on-campus ESL program, and a combination of tests are used for screening and placement.

Conclusion

ITA training is an important, complex issue. There are many successful program models to examine. It is useful to remember that these programs are probably successful, in part, because they were designed within the context of their particular institutions. Design factors can be identified, but the choices involved in program design, curriculum design, method of assessment, and implementation will vary greatly from institution to institution. An

FLOW CHART I
Screening, Placement, and Exit ITA Test



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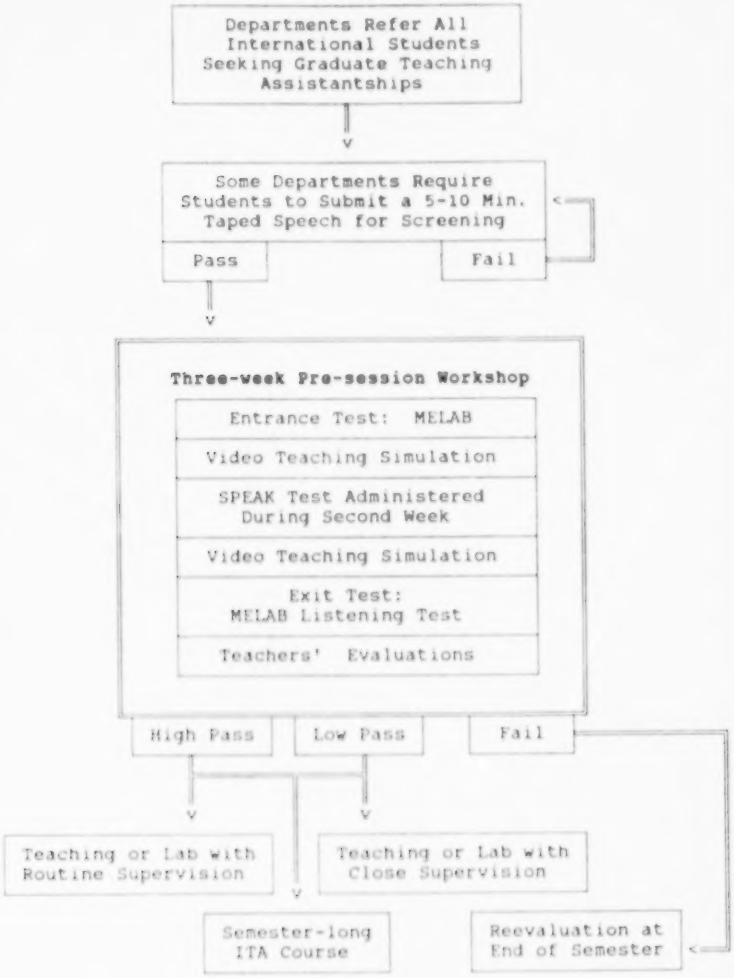
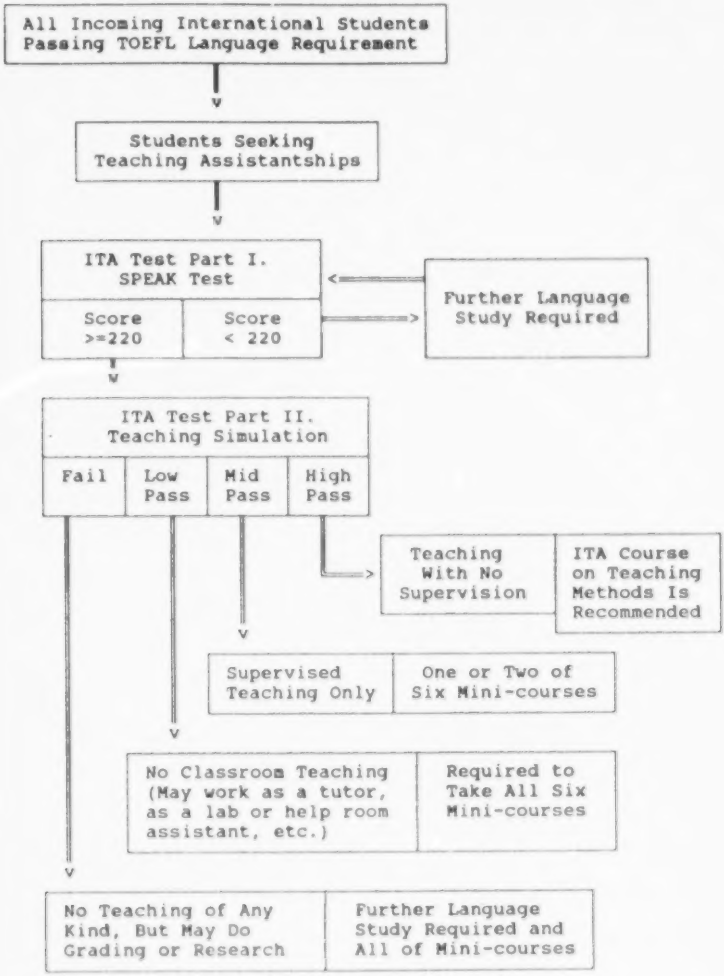
FLOW CHART II
Screening and Exit ITA Test


Departments Refer All International Students Seeking Graduate Teaching Assistantships
Some Departments Require Students to Submit a 5-10 Min. Taped Speech for Screening
Pass
Fail
Three-week Pre-session Workshop
Entrance Test: MELAB
Video Teaching Simulation
SPEAK Test Administered During Second Week
Video Teaching Simulation
Exit Test: MELAB Listening Test
Teachers' Evaluations
High Pass
Low Pass
Fail
Teaching or Lab with Routine Supervision
Teaching or Lab with Close Supervision
Semester-long ITA Course
Reevaluation at End of Semester

FLOW CHART III
Screening/Placement Combination ITA Test


All Incoming International Students Passing TOEFL Language Requirement
Students Seeking Teaching Assistantships
ITA Test Part I. SPEAK Test
Score >=220
Score < 220
Further Language Study Required
ITA Test Part II. Teaching Simulation
Fail
Low Pass
Mid Pass
High Pass
Teaching With No Supervision
ITA Course on Teaching Methods Is Recommended
Supervised Teaching Only
One or Two of Six Mini-courses
No Classroom Teaching (May work as a tutor, as a lab or help room assistant, etc.)
Required to Take All Six Mini-courses
No Teaching of Any Kind, But May Do Grading or Research
Further Language Study Required and All of Mini-courses

effective systems analysis or self-study will facilitate these decisions and improve the chances that the program will succeed.

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Section IV

Meeting the Challenge of the Adult Learner

Those who till the fields of Academe know that while the basic topography may remain essentially the same over the years, there are always enough changes—in climate, in availability of resources, in supply and demand, in technology—to make the enterprise interesting. Indeed, each decade seems to bring with it a virtual cornucopia of challenges. Certainly the 1980's delivered its fair share of issues and concerns, including that of dealing with the emergence of the adult learner as one of the major forces in higher education.

Happily, the influence of this important cohort has been primarily positive: adult learners, for example, have boosted declining enrollments and have added spice to homogeneous classes of traditional-age college students. But adult learners, because of their pressure-cooker schedules, high expectations, and particular needs, also represent challenge—to both teachers and faculty developers. This Section contains two articles designed to help meet that challenge.

Operating from the premise that "adult development is not a separate discipline, but rather an area of study informed by several disciplines," Diane Morrison, in "The Place of Narrative in the Study of Adult Development," sets about answering the following questions: Is the concept of narrative helpful as we strive to understand boundaries within and between disciplines, individuals, and groups? Is narrative a tool that can help us work and live with other adults within a wide range of settings? For good measure, Morrison reviews much of the important literature on narrative and considers some of the emerging studies on the use of narrative methods in faculty development.

In "Adult Students as Catalysts to Faculty Development: Effective Approaches to Predictable Opportunities," Douglas L. Robertson first discusses several principles for identifying faculty who will need to learn about adult development, and then examines how faculty developers can help their colleagues "apply the material to their own professional lives." Through his article Robertson hopes not only to enhance our ability to teach adult students, but also to help returning adults "become more self-directed in their own development."

In brief, both articles aim at helping us better understand and better work with one of our most important new student populations.

The Place of Narrative in the Study and Practice of Adult Development

Diane E. Morrison

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Come travel with me across boundaries—
Across walls, rivers, lines, fences,
Race, culture, gender, creed.
We will not destroy the boundaries,
But we will not let them hold us back;
We will touch and see and hear,
And maybe, we will know more of one another
Than we have ever known before.
Mary Elizabeth Moore (1988b)

Introduction

Adult development is not a separate discipline, but rather an area of study that is informed by several disciplines, particularly psychology, sociology, anthropology, philosophy, and theology. In turn, adult development informs practice in many different fields including that of professional and organizational development in higher education.

In the study and practice of adult development, we need to acknowledge tensions created by differing perspectives and research methods valued in the various informing disciplines. We also need to consider individual and group differences on a range of factors including culture, race, gender, age, cohort, religious preference, learning style, career path, family patterns, socio-economic status, health, and personality. We are called to open our-

selves to hear the various viewpoints which intersect when adult life is examined from a cross-disciplinary and multi-faceted perspective.

This article explores the place of narrative or storytelling in the study and practice of adult development. Can storytelling help us see and understand boundaries within and between disciplines, individuals, groups? Is narrative a tool that can help us work and live with others in a wide range of settings?

This theme will first be examined by looking at narrative within some of the disciplines informing adult development, and then by exploring links between narrative and shifts occurring in ways of knowing in the social sciences. Following this, I describe my own response to the use of narrative, particularly biography and autobiography, within a higher education graduate course on adult development. The final section considers some of the emerging literature on the use of narrative methods in faculty development and other adult education activities.

Narrative in Several Disciplines

Howard, a cross-cultural psychologist, points out that a growing number of narrative (or storytelling) psychologists are suggesting that as individuals we make sense or meaning of our existence through the concept of life as a developing story (1991). He includes a quote from Mair (1988) that captures the belief that story is central to individual development:

> We inhabit the great stories of our culture. We live through stories. We are lived by the stories of our race and place. It is this enveloping and constituting function of stories that is especially important to sense more fully. We are, each of us, locations where the stories of our place and time become partially tellable (p. 127).

Howard quotes Polkinghorne (1988) as making a similar point: "We make our existence into a whole by understanding it as an expression of a single and developing story" (p. 150). He also quotes McAdams (1985): "My central proposition is that identity is a life story which individuals begin constructing, consciously or unconsciously, in late adolescence. As such, identities may be understood in terms directly relevant to stories" (pp. 57-58).

Howard, acknowledging the considerable overlap between the two, compares anthropology, which tends to focus on large differences between cultural groups, with cross-cultural psychology, which highlights the importance of studying the ways that cultural differences influence individuals. Howard argues that we are raised in a wide variety of cultural subgroups,

including race, socioeconomic status, gender, religious preference, and political belief system and that "The subjective culture of each of us is strongly influenced by the degree of contact we have with people and institutions that focus on (or see the world in terms of) their own subcultural perspectives" (Howard, 1991, p. 192). He sees cultural differences as being rooted in the preferred stories of different ethnic, class, racial, gender, and cultural groups and sees these subcultural stories as reflecting the boundaries that exist between different groups of people.

Moore, an educator and process theologian, believes that stories can help foster individual development by helping people see and feel the reality of life on the other side of various boundaries. She proposes that

> Stories are an invitation to cross the boundaries of our worlds into the worlds of other people with their cultural and religious traditions. Stories are an invitation to cross the boundaries of the present into the past or future. They are an invitation to cross the boundaries into our own depths and into mystery. Stories carry us across these boundaries and into wholeness of life (Moore, 1988b, p. 1).

In her literature search, Moore was struck by the relative absence of reflections on narrative as a method in modern educational theory even though narrative was often mentioned in surveys of teaching strategies. She draws two conclusions about this dearth of writing. First, she wonders if it has been relatively easy to look at narrative separately as a teaching strategy without looking at the larger questions surrounding its theory and practice. In addition, she proposes that most teaching and learning theories are based on research in modern psychology, which has not had a major focus on complex forms of communication, but rather on cause and effect questions primarily looking at one or two carefully selected variables at a time (Moore, 1988a, p. 250).

However, Moore (1988a) did find a number of themes related to narrative within the broad literature of educational theory, philosophy, and theology. She describes these themes as following:

> 1. Imagination is being revalued as an important ingredient in education.
>
> 2. Narratives are a very important source of imagination.
>
> 3. Narrative is a source of human consciousness and social critique.
>
> 4. Story is a form of indirect communication that conveys truths which cannot be communicated directly.

5. Stories have the power to form and transform the world (pp. 250-253).

In addition to summarizing these five themes, Moore (1988a) also identifies three assumptions about learning she found in the work she reviewed:

> 1. *Human beings are imaginative creatures*—capable of imagination and in need of it. . . . Imagination opens the way for persons to gain perspective on their own lives, to perceive the world of another person or culture, and to envision alternate possibilities for life on the earth.
>
> 2. *Persons learn through stories.* . . . Story stirs imagination, and it also points to realities not easily communicated in conceptual forms.
>
> 3. *Social learning takes place through stories*, so that cultural beliefs and values and patterns of action are actually formed and transformed through storytelling (p. 253).

In summary, Howard shows that narrative has a central place in some aspects of anthropology and cross-cultural psychology. Moore finds little specific literature on narrative method within education, but considerable related material within process philosophy, theology, and broad educational theory. Through the lenses of different disciplines, both authors suggest that the concept of story does indeed have rich possibilities for understanding and assisting the development of individuals on their various life journeys. They propose that story provides us not only with a methodological tool for understanding the meanings adults give to their lives, but with a transformational tool for helping individuals experience vicariously the realities of people living across boundaries in other places, times, and circumstances.

Shifts in Ways of Knowing in the Social Sciences

To explore the place of narrative within the study of adult development, we can look at some of the research tensions and debates occurring in disciplines linked with adult development theory and practice. This section begins with an overview of Lincoln's (1988) article, *Trouble in the Land,* which examines the "paradigm shift" debate in the social sciences. This is followed by discussions and illustrations of these shifts in the work of Howard (1991), Palmer (1987, 1990), Clinchy (1990), and Moore (1988a).

Lincoln's argument that a paradigm revolution is happening is based on a review of literature in about a dozen different disciplines showing a move away from conventional logical positivist inquiry. Lincoln stresses that there

are different arguments given by different groups within different disciplines for replacing the logical positivist approach with new research approaches. In order to understand the various corrective proposals, she suggests that we need to recognize the different ways that the problem is being framed.

Lincoln suggests that there are at least four ways that the old paradigm is described as inadequate. These can be summarized as follows:

1. *The impoverished debate.* This debate could be characterized as occurring at the methods level with an argument for an inclusion of qualitative as well as quantitative methods in social science inquiry.

2. *The exclusion debate.* This debate is deeper than a call for a balance of methods. For example, it critiques conventional inquiry as having a male gendered bias, especially in research closely related to gender issues.

3. *The exception debate.* This debate opposes attempts of conventional inquiry to converge on a single reality. Instead, this critique calls for a constructivist view of reality.

4. *The whole paradigm debate.* Here the criticism is directed at the axioms or belief systems of logical positivism as being inappropriate for inquiry in the human behavioral sciences.

Lincoln builds extensively on the work of Schwartz and Ogilvy (1979) who reviewed academic disciplines and charted an "emergent pattern" on seven different dimensions of change. Schwartz and Ogilvy (1979, pp. 13-15) list the shifts they see occurring:

1. From *simple to complex* realities.

2. From *hierarchic to heterarchic* concepts of order. (The idea of a chain of command has given way to systems that are not pyramidal.)

3. From *mechanical toward holographic* metaphors.

4. From *determinacy toward indeterminacy.* (Ambiguity about the future is a condition of nature.)

5. From *linear to mutual causality.* (Factors may interact in ways that they evolve and change together making cause and effect meaningless.)

6. From *assembly to morphogenesis.* (There is a sense of order emerging from disorder in systems significant for their diversity, openness, complexity, mutual causality, and indeterminacy.)

7. From *objective toward perspective.* (Where we look from affects what we see, and any one focus gives only a partial result. Therefore no single discipline ever gives a complete picture.)

Using this description of the changes that Schwartz and Ogilvy found occurring in the academic disciplines, and her own review of the research literature, Lincoln summarizes the variety, extent, and complexity of the paradigm debate in selected disciplines. Following are illustrations from psychology and sociology.

Lincoln found that the argument in psychology ranged widely, and included a call for more qualitative methods, more inquiry in natural settings, as well as a call from some quarters for a complete paradigm shift. She also reminds us that there are two disciplines of scientific psychology: the positivist tradition, and one growing out of phenomenology. As psychology is the basis for much of the learning theory we use in education, shifts in the ways of knowing in psychology will likely have a major influence on future directions in educational research.

Lincoln states that sociology has drawn from anthropology from its beginnings and therefore has not undergone the same struggle for inclusion of qualitative methods that some disciplines have experienced. Lincoln suggests, however, that "two currents flow against each other: the first from the qualitative methodologists who see understanding meaning as the key to understanding human groups, and the second which enjoys the broad grasp of movement by means of demographic, cliometric, and/or quantitative studies" (Lincoln, 1988, p. 89).

Howard (1991) connects story or narrative with what Lincoln and others refer to as a "paradigm shift" within the academic disciplines. His article's opening section is entitled, "Epistemological Background," and in it, he argues that "All across the intellectual landscape, the forces of objectivism are yielding to the entreaties of constructivist thought" (p. 187). Howard suggests that science can be understood as a form of storytelling and story refinement, as can nonscientific forms of knowing. He proposes that both forms of knowing share a common genus (narrative or storytelling), but represent different species, being evaluated by different sets of criteria. "The moral is: Different types of stories best serve different functions" (p. 190).

The work of Parker Palmer, a sociologist and educator, is also important to consider when looking at storytelling and shifts in the ways of knowing in the academic disciplines. Palmer (1990) describes how "the academy of higher education has been dominated by an objectivist image of knowing which keeps the knower at arm's length from the known so that 'subjective' biases will not distort our knowledge" (p. 12). He suggests, however, that the

call for a new epistemology is not the overthrow of objectivity, analysis, and experimentation. Rather, we must pay attention to the ways these objective tools can be effectively counterbalanced. Palmer also explores a theme he calls the "autobiographical connection" in teaching and learning in the academy. He states that:

> Objectivism regards autobiography as biased and parochial and hopes to replace it with "universal truth," as told through a particular discipline. The challenge of racial and cultural minorities to higher education comes in part from their refusal to accept the validity of a "universal" tale that does not honor the particularities of their own stories. . . . If there is a valid super-story, it will emerge only as the academy becomes what it is meant to be, but is not yet: a place of true pluralism where many stories can be told and heard in concert (1990, p. 13).

Another important resource in the emerging literature on story and adult development is *Women's Ways of Knowing*. This book is based on a collaborative, qualitative research project in which the interviewers listened to the stories of women talking about their experiences in particular teaching/learning contexts. Blythe Clinchy (1990), one of the coauthors, places their research methodology and findings within the "emerging paradigm" in the social sciences.

> As we read and reread the interview transcripts, we also tried to stay close to the women's own images. Over and over the women spoke of their growth in terms of gaining a voice. . . . These women saw the themes of voice and self and mind as closely intertwined . . . we revised our definitions of the epistemological positions to emphasize the *source* of knowledge and truth, rather than the *nature* of knowledge and truth (p. 58).

In this book the coauthors delineate two types of procedural knowing: separate and connected. Clinchy describes each of them in her article:

> The heart of separate knowing is detachment. The separate knower holds herself aloof from the object she is trying to analyze. . . . She follows certain rules or procedures to insure that her judgments are unbiased. Separate knowing often takes the form of an adversarial proceeding . . . and the primary mode of discourse is the argument (1990, pp. 60-62).

> Connected knowers are not dispassionate, unbiased observers; . . . they try to get right inside it, to form an intimate attachment to it. This imaginative attachment is at the heart of connected knowing. She doesn't try to evaluate the perspective she is examining, she tries to understand it. She does not ask whether it is right; she asks what it means. . . . She is looking for the

> story behind the idea. The voice of separate knowing is argument; the voice of connected knowing is a narrative voice (1990, pp. 63-64).

Unlike Howard, Palmer, or Clinchy, Moore does not state directly that a shift is occurring within the mode of inquiry in the social sciences. However, her article is grounded in the postmodern approaches of process philosophy and education as influenced by the work of Alfred North Whitehead and others. Moore describes some of the assumptions underlying the organic philosophers' view of education and they sound very similar to the emerging paradigm described by Schwartz and Ogilvy (1979), Howard (1991), and Lincoln (1988):

> When one begins theorizing about education from an organic, web-like view of the world, one begins with assumptions that the world is thoroughly interconnected, and one naturally seeks modes of communication which are themselves organic and web-like. When one begins theorizing about education from an organic view of time, one begins with assumptions that the present is intimately related with the past and future, and one naturally seeks modes of communication in which the dynamic process of life can be viewed through time. Narrative communication is a natural, and it invites a closer look (Moore, 1988a, p. 249).

Howard, Palmer, Clinchy, and Moore all propose that narrative methods are important modes of inquiry. They also suggest that narrative can provide pathways to individual empowerment—a concept central to adult development. For example, when individual learners hear the stories of how knowledge in the various disciplines is constructed, and when they sense they are invited into the discourse, they expand the ways they can imagine participating in the community of scholars (Palmer, 1990). Through the hearing and telling of personal stories, they are also encouraged to imagine new ways of participating in the construction of their own lives. Narrative appears to hold the promise of being a rich resource for both the study and practice of adult development.

Narrative Methods: A Personal Response

How are narrative methods such as biography and autobiography useful for the understanding of adult development? I examine this question by discussing my response as a learner to the use of narrative in a graduate course on adult development. Examples of both biography and autobiography were included within the reading material for several of the topics we studied, and

one of our texts described possible uses of personal documents in the study of adult development (Wrightsman, 1988).

As I reflect on the course, I notice that of the wide range of readings we had, it is the narrative material I most easily recall. In addition to several of the articles, I found three longer narratives particularly significant: Coles' (1970) *Erikson: The Growth of His Work*, Coles' (1989) *The Call of Stories*, and Bateson's (1990) *Composing a Life*.

In reflecting on the place of narrative within this course on adult development, I begin with Erikson, who expanded the work of Freud into an eight-stage socio-cultural model of adult development. Erikson's model was developed largely through ethnographic research, on some occasions collaboratively conducted with anthropologists, combined with personal reflection. Erikson elaborated his theories in two psychobiographies—one on Martin Luther, and one on Mahatma Gandhi. When I read Erikson's own life story, as portrayed in the biography by Robert Coles, I had an even greater appreciation of Erikson's extensive and important contribution to the study of adult development.

Levinson's conceptual framework was influenced by both Erikson and Jung, and was developed in more detail from extensive interviews with 40 men. Levinson (1978) describes his research method as "biographical interviewing. The primary task, as we informed our subjects at the start, was to construct the story of a man's life. Interviewer and interviewee joined collaboratively in this work" (p. 14). From analyzing the case material, Levinson and his research team proposed that adult lives are structured with oscillating periods of stability and transition with the likelihood of a difficult mid-life transition period around age forty. He refers to these stages as seasons, with each one distinct from those before and after it, but with much in common with them as well. He sees these different seasons as occurring at very predictable age markers. Although Levinson put considerable effort into his participant selection process, we need to be careful about generalizing too broadly from his sample as his findings may be descriptive of a particular cohort. Even with limitations in Levinson's research, his work, along with that of Erikson and Jung, illustrates how narrative is an important part of adult development research.

Bateson's *Composing a Life* has a different research methodology from that used by either Erikson or Levinson. Erikson's narratives are based on the lives of two major historical figures, and Levinson's narratives are anonymous. Bateson's work, however, is a combination of autobiography and biography, based on extensive interviews as well as personal experiences with four other women—Ellen Bassuk, Johnetta Cole, Alice D'Entremont,

and Joan Erikson. Her book describes her own life along with the lives of these four close associates, women who have woven relationship and achievement into their lives, throughout their lives.

The chapter headings give a sense of the adult life as a journey as Bateson invites us to consider themes such as Opening to the World, Multiple Lives, Vicissitudes of Commitments, Fits and Starts, and Enriching the Earth. She shows how each of the women in this book has faced discontinuities, life interruptions, and conflicting priorities, but has found a way to improvise or compose a next step response anyway. In fact, the interruptions and difficulties have often become sources of growth. She proposes that by looking in detail at the particular life-stories of several women who have adapted to the complexities of living, there may be inspiration for men as well as for women who find themselves in rapidly changing circumstances rather than stable life environments.

The Call of Stories is a description of Coles' use of stories in his teaching and medical practice. However, the book is much more than that; it is actually an autobiography, organized around the central place that stories and story-telling have in his work as a teacher and a doctor. In this book, Coles gives many specific illustrations of how the lives of students and patients have been personally and deeply touched through the reading and sharing of stories.

In summary, the course readings that I recall the most clearly, and that personally touched me the most deeply, were narratives in the form of nonfiction. Why did the impact of these narratives appear to be stronger and longer lasting on me than that of the non-narrative texts? I believe I made a personal connection with the authors and persons in the narratives. Like the students and patients in Coles' *Call of Stories* and the connected learners in *Women's Ways of Knowing*, I feel that I let the narratives enter me and that I allowed myself to be affected by them.

Biographies and autobiographies can serve as text material for the study of adult development. Reading the narratives of others can also serve as a stimulus for the reader's own growth and development. But there is another way to look at the place of narrative within adult development, and that is in engaging the adult learner in telling and writing one's own autobiographical material.

This form of narrative was also included as part of this graduate course on adult development. In the first class, we shared our various metaphors for adult development, along with our own first memories of feeling like an adult. In our first written assignment, we examined our own sense of adult development through a response to a piece of literature of significance to us. The major assignments were structured so that our own puzzles and interests in

adult development could guide our outside reading and writing in the course. Although these activities formed part of the structure of the course, I believe that this use of narrative was more an "implicit" rather than "explicit" aspect of the curriculum (Eisner, 1979).

Narrative Methods in Adult Development Activities

In my search for literature on the use of narrative in postsecondary faculty development activities, the key source I found directly referring to the use of story was an article by Peter Frederick (1990). He advocates the use of collegial storytelling as an effective and powerful faculty development activity. Based on a brief review of relevant literature and his own experience in leading workshops for faculty, he proposes that through storytelling, we can "achieve deeper insights into who we are as professional scholars and teachers . . . which enables us better to help our students learn" (p. 7). This article includes a very detailed and useful description of a format for telling teaching stories within a collegial community setting. Frederick concludes by suggesting that the use of autobiographical stories can occur not only in faculty development settings, but in higher education classrooms as well.

In the same publication, Frederick's article is sandwiched between two others, one by Steve Golin and the other by Patricia Cross. I propose that the programs described in these two articles are also strongly connected with the use of narrative methods. The article by Golin (1990) describes the Master Faculty Program introduced into the New Jersey Higher Education system in 1987 by Joseph Katz based on his two decades of research on student growth and faculty development. As this article gives only a brief description of this process of peer collaboration and student interviewing, readers are directed to the following two publications for greater exploration of this in-depth process of faculty development.

In *Turning Professors into Teachers*, Katz and Henry (1988) describe the results of their work with major projects at fifteen higher education institutions. Their work does not directly highlight the use of story, but central to their work is the importance of regular interviewing of students (listening to their voices) about their learning (their stories) in the specific classes of the participating faculty members. This is combined with peer conversations about the information from the class visits as well as from the student interviews. This book gives a detailed description of their inquiry-based model and includes reflective essays by three faculty with companion pieces by Joe Katz on his experience as a colleague observer. There are also two

interview transcripts with faculty (a biologist and a political scientist). Both faculty claim that one of their key learnings from the project was hearing from their students about the positive benefits of the use of stories within their teaching. In Morrissey (1990), the essays by participants in the New Jersey program give a sense of the new relationships that emerged not only between the peer partners but between faculty and students as well. This book provides an opportunity to gain a deeper understanding of the power of having one's stories really heard whether one is a student or a faculty member.

In the article, "Teachers as Scholars," Cross (1990) presents the argument that teaching should and will move to being one of the more scholarly and intellectual activities of college faculty and that this move will be partially stimulated by increasingly diverse student populations. Her proposal of the classroom as a learning laboratory (classroom research model) is one where the learners talk and write about their own learning in response to specific questions about various teaching/learning activities. Through regular investigation into these stories of successful and unsuccessful student learning within their own classrooms, faculty and graduate teaching assistants can transform their understanding of teaching and learning. The benefits include an expansion of their abilities to work with the diversity of learners participating in postsecondary classrooms today.

There is also a growing literature on process education that includes direct reference to the power of story in education. The groups primarily addressed in this literature are children and youth. However, there is also some material on the use of narrative in teacher education. Eisner, writing in the foreword of the book, *Teachers as Curriculum Planners: Narratives of Experience* (Connelly and Clandinin, 1988), says that one of the most important contributions of this book is their use of teacher narratives. He writes:

> The metaphors by which teachers live, the way they construe their work, and the stories they recount, tell us more profoundly about what is going on in their lives as professionals than any measured behavior is likely to reveal. But to use such data one must have courage. Narratives are regarded as "soft," and soft data do not inspire confidence among the tough-minded. Narratives are often riddled with metaphor, with individual cadences that convey personal meaning, and with those expressive features that do not lend themselves well to truth tests . . . . The use of narratives, and the epistemological frameworks through which these narratives embody and convey meaning, not only provides an important way to think about curriculum and teaching, but also is vital to understanding what goes on at school (pp. x-xi).

This book describes a number of reflective tools, based in narrative methodology, that are starting to be used in teacher pre-service and in-service activities, including journal-keeping, autobiography, picturing, document analysis, storytelling, letter writing (dialogue between professionals), teacher interviews, and participant observation. Many of these approaches are also now used within faculty development programs. However, as pointed out earlier, there is descriptive information on specific narrative teaching strategies, but a dearth of research on the broader issues concerning the use of narrative methods (Moore, 1988a).

Two other recent books highlight the importance of fostering self-reflection and critical inquiry in adult learning experiences. Smith and Associates (1990) explore the metacognitive process of "learning to learn" from many different perspectives. The chapter by Stephen Brookfield includes the analysis of written autobiographies as one of three phenomenological methods for inquiry in the area of learning to learn. The other two methods, interviewing and describing critical incidents, are also narrative-related strategies. Mezirow and Associates (1990) include several chapters that focus on narrative techniques such as critical incidents, life histories, journal writing, and the emancipatory potential of literature. Teaching strategies to assist adult learners develop their self-reflective and critical inquiry capabilities have linkages with narrative approaches and with the "emerging paradigm" literature identified by Lincoln (1988).

As I reflect on the place of autobiographical methods within adult education—in faculty development programs as well as in courses taught by postsecondary faculty—I find a quote from Palmer (1990) particularly provocative. He says:

> Of course, everyone's story is, in part, parochial and biased. But when we deal with that fact by ignoring autobiography, we create educated monsters who know much about the world's external workings but little about their inner selves. The authentically educated person is one who can both embrace and transcend the particularity of his or her story because it has been triangulated many times from the standpoints of other stories, other disciplines—a process that enriches the disciplines as well (pp. 13-14).

Conclusion

The place of narrative in adult development research and practice has been examined in this article from several different perspectives. Recognizing that adult development is a field of study informed by a number of disciplines, the first step was to look for literature on narrative in at least some of these disciplines. Although the survey was not exhaustive, it was found

that narrative emerged as an important concept in cross-cultural psychology, in some approaches within anthropology, in process philosophy, and in the broader literature of educational theory. The second section of the article examined literature, proposing that a shift is occurring in the ways of knowing in the social sciences—including a shift towards more narrative-based research approaches, such as life history and in-depth interviewing. Although not reviewed here, literature is also becoming available on ways to improve the quality of narrative research (Anderson, 1981; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Runyan, 1988).

In the second half of the paper, there was a shift of focus from narrative as research methodology towards narrative as educational methodology. This was first addressed through my own personal reflections on the use of narrative, particularly biography and autobiography, in both the content and process of a graduate course on adult development. The final section of the paper described some of the current literature on the use of story in faculty development and teacher education, and included a reference to emerging literature using narrative methods to assist adult learners develop self-reflective and critical inquiry capabilities.

In summary, narrative is now a well established methodology within adult development research. However, even though the use of storytelling has a long and rich tradition in many cultures, it has not been explicitly acknowledged as a powerful or even legitimate teaching/learning resource in higher education. But the tide is beginning to turn. Narrative methods are starting to gain recognition for their educational and developmental value, just as they have gained recognition for their value in social science research.

It seems that narrative *can* help those who study adult development to understand better the boundaries that divide not only disciplines, but that divide individuals and groups as well. Narrative can also help researchers and learners recognize and sometimes cross boundaries such as those of time, place, culture, and circumstance. And the ability to cross boundaries is becoming more and more important as our higher educational institutions become increasingly diverse in terms of the people studying and working within them. Through my reading and reflections on biography and autobiography, I have developed a growing interest in, and enthusiasm for, the value of narrative methods, not only within research about adult development, but within educational programs for adults, including developmental activities for the educators themselves.

As interest in adult development as well as in narrative grows, adult educators and professional development practitioners will likely be in greater communication with colleagues in a wide variety of disciplines, not only the

social sciences but also literature, film, and communication, to learn more about their perspectives on the nature and applications of narrative. And as narrative methods become more of an explicit rather than implicit part of the educational conversation, greater research attention will likely be given to understanding the specific strengths and limitations of their use.

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Adult Students as Catalysts to Faculty Development: Effective Approaches to Predictable Opportunities

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Twenty-eight years old, male, newly Ph.D.-ed, I faced them. The women, a whole room full of terrified, tough, vulnerable, complex women in their 30s and 40s, sat waiting for me to convene the class.

The time was the late-1970s, and I worked at a small, liberal arts college that had just started to focus on serving adults. Many of these students sitting in my class were divorced, single parents, who were borrowing their way to a degree and a new future. My class cost them today's equivalent of $750. It was expensive. They had married, divorced, raised children, helped parents to die, worked in agencies . . . hospitals . . . businesses, and my task was to teach them $750 worth of psychology. I was supposed to do this—me, the valedictorian, the fellowship winner, the stellar graduate of the prestigious department, the professional student, the sequestered nerd—I was supposed to do this. I knew nothing about these people nor their worlds. But I needed to understand them in order to be a good teacher here. I could see right away that I had to be a learner, too. I had a need to know, but in our small, impoverished school, I had no faculty development professional to help me. *Need but no help.*

Ten years later, I had written a book about what I had learned mainly on my own—appropriately entitled, *Self-Directed Growth* (Robertson, 1988). Following the book's publication, I began to do staff trainings on topics dealing with adult development. As the academic dean of the small, liberal arts college looked on, I would attempt to engage the faculty—most of whom

taught traditional-age students—in issues related to stages, phases, transitions, and gender. These training sessions are not featured in my mental scrapbook of great successes. In fact, I think that I am brave to remember them at all. In these cases, the professors had a faculty development professional available—me—but they saw no need to learn about the topic—adult development. *Help but no need.*

During this same period, I began to teach a graduate course on adult development in the school of education at the local, public university. Typically, I walked into these classes to find the room packed with teachers, managers, and counselors from all kinds of settings—universities, small colleges, community colleges, elementary schools, middle schools, high schools, hospitals, agencies, and businesses. The course was elective, and the students came because they had a professional need to understand various aspects of adult development. They needed to understand these topics so that they could effectively teach, manage, and counsel their adult students, staffs, and clients. However, what occurred often was that as they were learning about *them*—their students, staffs, and clients—they were also learning about *themselves*. Motivated to achieve a *professional* objective, some of them accomplished profound *personal* development. In this case, the need to know existed simultaneously with the help. *Need and help together.*

Readiness is critical to development. When I was five years old, my brother and I tried to rush the birth of a pheasant by baking the egg in an oven. The shell's little occupant stood no more chance of survival than the flower bud I once tried to peel open. Timing has a fundamental importance. We need to match our help with the person's perceived need to know. . .their readiness to grow.

The initial objective of this discussion is to articulate several principles for identifying in the upcoming decade concentrations of faculty who will perceive a clear need to learn about adult development. Then, the intent is to examine how faculty development professionals can effectively help these faculty to apply the material to their own lives. The outcome of succeeding at these two endeavors will be to enhance both the faculty's ability to teach a significant new student population—returning adults—as well as their capacity to become more self-directed in their own development.

Faculty with the Need to Know

Faculty who have two particular characteristics are likely to feel a strong need to learn about adult development. First, *they care about their teaching.* Regardless of their productivity in other forms of academic activity—whether they research, write, consult, or serve their institutions and associa-

tions a lot or a little—they want to be good teachers. This caring naturally drives them to want to understand their students. The stronger the caring about their teaching, the stronger is the motivation to know about their students.

This robust motivation brings us to the second characteristic of faculty with high readiness to learn about adult development. *They are just beginning to teach adult students.* They face a profound novelty similar to the one that I described for myself in the beginning of this paper. They care about their teaching and want to know their students. But they recognize that they are ignorant in this regard. These faculty will be hungry to learn about adult development.

The number of faculty who will have these two characteristics in the 1990s will be substantial. While I cannot say what proportion of faculty have the first characteristic—caring about their teaching—I can say that the teaching-oriented institutions in which we are likely to find concentrations of such faculty (i.e., specialized institutions, community colleges, liberal arts colleges, and comprehensive colleges and universities) give every indication they will remain vital and significant educational providers in the 1990s. In 1987, these institutions accounted for 72% of the higher education enrollments in the United States, which was up from 69% in 1970 (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1987).

Also, I can say that the number of faculty members who will teach classes in which adult students constitute the majority will remain sizable in the foreseeable future. The adult learner phenomenon has exploded onto the higher education scene in the last two decades. From 1970 to 1985, students 25 years or older increased from 28% to 42% of U. S. higher education enrollments (Center for Education Statistics, 1987). Although the growth may have leveled off, the huge presence of adult learners on college campuses is clearly with us through to the year 2000 (Brazziel, 1989). Moreover, because social and technological forces will increasingly encourage lifelong learning, no good reason exists for expecting it to diminish significantly even then (Apps, 1988; Cross, 1981).

Where to Find These Faculty

The novelty of teaching adults presents a developmental opportunity for faculty. This fact should not surprise us since a new situation with new demands is often a precipitating factor when development occurs. (For a discussion of novelty and nine other factors that encourage development, see Robertson, 1988.) Novelty that stimulates growth can be either chosen or unchosen. These two situational categories—chosen and unchosen nov-

elty—provide us with a framework with which to group circumstances where we are likely to find concentrations of faculty who have the characteristics identified in the previous section.

First, we begin with unchosen novelty—situations in which faculty find themselves having to adapt to teaching adults whether they like it or not. A good example of this kind of situation is what I call the *urban small college* (Robertson, 1991). These colleges are located in metropolitan areas and in the past have focused on providing liberal arts education to traditional-age, residential students. Often carrying a religious affiliation, the colleges have looked beyond the city to their regional and sometimes national networks to fill their dormitories with 18-year-olds. However, due to demographic shifts in American society, the dorms have not been filling with these young people, and financial crisis has ensued for many institutions. In response, the colleges have turned to their local environments for commuter students. What they have found in the city and its suburbs are adult learners in abundance, and they have entered the competition for these students.

The size of this phenomenon appears worthy of note. For example, in Portland, Oregon, one of twenty consolidated metropolitan statistical areas (CMSAs) in the United States, four out of the seven less-selective liberal art colleges (Carnegie classification: Liberal Arts II) have baccalaureate degree programs targeted for adults (Robertson, 1991). Current research into the postsecondary ecosystems of the remaining 19 CMSAs will provide a more precise indication of just how large a phenomenon it is.

As a result of these dynamics and the concomitant emergence of this new species of institution, in the upcoming decade we can expect to find whole faculties who have the two characteristics that suggest high readiness to learn about adult development. The mission of the small liberal arts college centers on teaching and the holistic development of the individual. Consequently, it tends to attract faculty who have our first characteristic: they sincerely care about their teaching.

Many of these faculty, whether novice or veteran, will be teaching adults for the first time, which is our second characteristic. Like any conscientious teacher—whether or not they would have chosen to teach adults—they will hunger for knowledge about this new student population. Here we have a relatively large group of faculty who have a strong need for help, just the kind of situation for which the faculty development professional should search.

The second category of situations in which we can expect this high readiness are circumstances of chosen novelty, situations in which the faculty choose to teach adults but have no experience at it. For example, faculty—

whether adjunct or full-time—who are new to teaching evening or weekend courses are likely to meet significant numbers of adult learners. And if they care about their teaching they will want to know everything they can about these learners. Again, these faculty constitute a propitious concentration in the eye of the astute faculty development professional. Other examples include faculty who are new to teaching in continuing education, university colleges, weekend colleges, professional schools, developmental education, and community education.

Bridging Professional and Personal Development

In the third story with which I began this paper, I referred to the participants in a graduate class I had taught on adult development. They had come to learn this topic because it related importantly to job tasks they needed to do well. They were managers, counselors, teachers, and staff developers, who worked with adult students, staffs, and clients. They needed to understand change in adult life in order to manage, counsel, teach, and develop these adults. But as we went along, I saw many of them applying the material to personal issues.

For example, female participants often gained immediate and significant insight into their own lives from the material on women's development and gender differences. Participants in their late 30s and 40s often took a pronounced, personal interest in the material on midlife transition. Participants who were undergoing significant transition, regardless of their age or the transition type, were riveted on the material about transition phases. In many ways, the participants were the subject matter. And within the safety of their student roles, many of them applied the material to their own lives, quietly checking with me after class to see what I thought of their personal analyses.

A person's motivation and learning agenda may exist in several layers, with differing degrees of self awareness and public disclosure in each layer. Adults often cite work-related reasons for their participation in learning activities (Apps, 1988; Aslanian & Brickell, 1980). However, from 14 years of experience in adult education, I know that much more may be involved. For many adult learners, just beneath the surface of the articulated desire to develop professionally is a powerful, often unvoiced, motivation to work on personal issues. Typically, these issues relate to some facet of adult development.

Many faculty who learn about adult development for professional reasons also will have layers of professional and personal agendas and motivations. As faculty development professionals, we certainly will want to attend

to the professional agenda—to help faculty to improve their ability to serve the new student population of returning adults. But also, where possible, we will want to assist faculty in increasing their awareness of their own life course and their skill at managing that life course. To achieve this second set of objectives, we need to be vigilant for openings to the faculty member's often submerged, personal agenda and have strategies ready for appropriate facilitation.

Discretion is the better part of valor, according to Shakespeare. The valorous—*and effective*—faculty development professional must be discreet in facilitating personal development within the context of professional development activities. We must remember that the official objective of faculty in adult development workshops is to learn about *them*—their adult students, staffs, and clients. The opportunity for personal application of the material is often lost if the participant must publicly reveal a personal agenda. Participants must always be allowed to shield themselves in public with their professional role.

Providing opportunities for—not forcing—this kind of personal development can occur in at least two circumstances: (a) the session itself, and (b) follow-up activities. Strategies should be developed for each context.

For example, during workshops on adult development, after climate-setting activities, I often begin with a guided visualization in which participants recall a growth experience in their own lives. I preface this activity with a brief explanation of experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984) so that anchoring the material in a personal experience is justified in terms of theory and research on effective learning. Participants can relax in the knowledge that they are not "getting personal" as they relive their own growth episodes. They are simply accomplishing their professional learning agenda.

Immediately following the guided visualization, participants are asked to brainstorm individually, then edit, a list of features that characterize the experience they have just relived. Then participants are organized into small groups with two tasks: (a) to share their individual lists, and (b) to create a group list by identifying common features among the individual lists. Initially, participants were asked to select an experience that they would not mind reliving nor sharing with others. So, disclosing in the group is normally not a problem.

The group lists are then reported out and recorded publicly. The large group attempts to identify commonalities among the small group lists—essentially, to create a theory of growth that is based on the personal experience of the participants. The use of personal experience is justified in terms of

academic interest in theory building. The foundation is then firmly set for a presentation on the major theory and research regarding adult development.

In this way, a bridge is built between the participants' lives and the material. By justifying the elicitation of the participants' own experience in terms of effectively accomplishing the professional development agenda, those faculty who are ready to travel across that bridge and apply the material to personal issues can do so without fanfare or loss of face. Those faculty who feel no strong need to apply the material to personal issues can simply enjoy learning about *them*—their adult students.

Regarding follow-up opportunities for faculty who want to cross this bridge to personal application, we need to employ similar discretion. For example, trying to set up a life planning workshop or, worse yet, a transition support group is probably counter-productive. With good reason, people are shy about disclosing personal issues in the workplace. Anecdotally, I know that individual participation in employee assistance programs is often discouraged by concern for associated stigma, even though the programs routinely promise confidentiality.

A better intervention would be to include in the materials packet for *every* participant a carefully selected list of community resources for working on personal issues common in adult life. No one would have to call attention to himself or herself by having to ask for the list. The directory could be provided under the guise of empowering faculty with good referrals should they need them with their adult students. Of course, they may need them for their adult students, but also they may need them for themselves.

Appropriate interventions in workshop sessions and in follow-up activities will depend on the clients and the context. However, the examples just discussed should make clear the general principle: *opportunities for personal application should be created that allow the individual to choose whether or not to use them and whether or not to disclose that choice.*

Conclusion

The potential outcomes of following the principles described in this paper are exciting. If we target faculty members with high readiness—those who care about their teaching and who are just beginning to teach adults—and if we grasp the opportunity for professional development to become personal, then I can see the nation's professoriate not only becoming better at serving the substantial, new student population of returning adults, but also becoming healthier as human beings. Students, faculty, institutions, and society in general would benefit greatly from these outcomes.

As the saying goes, "Luck is a crossroad where preparation and oppor-

tunity meet." Because of the continuing magnitude of the adult learner phenomenon, we know that the opportunity for significant faculty development will exist in the 1990s. Through insightful targeting and programming, faculty development professionals can focus and be present at these opportunities. And through thoughtful preparation, we can be effective. If we follow the suggestions set forth here, I think that we can get "lucky" in a big way in the 1990s.

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Section V

Enhancing Teaching-Learning and Classroom Climate

Since the beginnings of faculty development in the early 1960's, professionals in the field have been asked to perform dozens of functions, but one has remained central: helping faculty improve teaching and learning. If there is a single *raison d'etre* for faculty developers, this is it. Approaching their task with extraordinary energy and dedication, faculty developers have become true pioneers and innovators in the area of teaching-learning. Indeed, they have become some of the most assiduous students of the craft of teaching. And what they learn they generously share. Over the years faculty development professionals have made invaluable contributions to the literature of teaching-learning. The authors contributing to this final Section carry on this honorable tradition.

The opening essay, Peter J. Frederick's "The Medicine Wheel: Emotions and Connections in the Classroom," recommends a model of teaching-learning in which the affective dimension plays a primary role. Deploring the fact that emotions are "taboo" in higher education, Frederick urges teachers and developers to acknowledge the presence of emotions and feelings in the classroom. He goes on to suggest that as a symbolic tool the Medicine Wheel can help immensely in this endeavor, serving to constantly remind us of the four dimensions of learning: mental, emotional, physical, and spiritual. Barbara J. Millis's essay, "Putting the Teaching Portfolio in Context," also promotes a holistic approach to teaching-learning improvement by advocating the use of the teaching portfolio. Describing the teaching portfolio as an "idea whose time has come," Millis begins her essay by putting the concept of the teaching portfolio into an historical context, follows with a detailed

discussion of five key reasons for its viability, and concludes with some observations on the teaching portfolio's vital role in the "New Scholarship."

The remaining articles in Section V identify four other ways of improving instruction and classroom climate. In "Recognition from Parents: A Variation on Traditional Teaching Awards," Delivee L. Wright describes how the University of Nebraska-Lincoln's Parents' Recognition Award has served as a practical, low-cost device for encouraging good teaching as well as for making parents active participants in the learning process. Edwin Fenton, in "Coping with the Academic 'Tragedy of the Commons': Renovating Classrooms at Carnegie Mellon University," reminds us through an instructive case study involving a major renovation project at Carnegie Mellon, of just how important physical facilities are in establishing a congenial and fertile classroom climate. Linda Hilsen and LeAne Rutherford, in "Front Line Faculty Development: Chairs Constructively Critiquing Colleagues in the Classroom," concretely outline a plan to enhance instruction through the effective use of department chairs as peer observers. And, finally, Myrna J. Smith and Mark LaCelle-Peterson, in "The Professor as Active Learner," share important information about the New Jersey Master Faculty Program, a nationally-known consortial effort that uses various collaborative enterprises such as classroom observation, student interviews, and collegial reflection, to improve teaching-learning.

The Medicine Wheel: Emotions and Connections in the Classroom

Peter J. Frederick

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There was even more anticipatory energy than usual in my Black History class that late January day in 1991. We were about to discuss *The Confessions of Nat Turner*, a text that in the past had generated heated emotions as we debated whether students thought Turner's 1831 slave revolt, in which 55 whites were killed, was "justified." Among the 41 students in the course there were, as usual, about ten African-American students, two international students of color, and the predictable handful of sensitive white liberal students. But in contrast to past patterns, this year there was an unusually high number of whites who, following the political climate of recent years, blamed blacks for their claims of victimization and continuing anger, opposed affirmative action as "reverse discrimination," wondered if slavery was all that bad, and selected examples from history to justify their view of the present (just like historians do). Most, however, whites and blacks alike, were confused and eager to learn.

As I put the question to the class, "Was Nat Turner's revolt justified?," I expected an even hotter expression of arguments than usual. To my surprise, although the discussion was emotionally charged, students did not divide along lines I had predicted. The resistant whites were overwhelmingly on the side of justifying the revolt, while the "white liberals" opposed it; the blacks were divided. It was not until the discussion was nearly over that I wondered if students had unwittingly chosen the side on *Nat Turner* that reflected their position on the recently-begun war in the Persian Gulf. A show of hands suggested that for many students strong feelings about violence and patriotism more than about slavery and Nat Turner lay behind their choices.

Emotions in the Classroom

This story confirms for me how powerfully students' emotional investment in some current issue in their lives, either political or personal, affects their performance in class. Whether or not there is a particularly controversial topic to consider, emotions are *always* present in students' degree of confidence in themselves as learners. A Chemistry colleague described to me (Frederick, 1990) how much energy his students displayed when he asked them on the first day of class to name the emotions they were feeling about taking Chemistry: "'Fear,' 'frustration,' 'confusion,' 'anxiety,' 'panic' . . . as fast as you can say those words, the students barked them out."

Emotions are taboo in higher education. The paradigm that governs how we are supposed to know and learn is rational, logical, empirical, analytic, competitive, and objective. Students learn to distance themselves from that which they are supposed to know. In this familiar model the assumption is that classrooms are isolated castles, surrounded by icy moats signaling all who enter to abandon feelings and prepare for the rigors of empirical investigation and rational discourse. Even those of us in faculty development do much less work with Bloom's affective than his cognitive domain; we do not emphasize "critical feeling" nor do workshops on "emotions across the curriculum." And for good reason: our colleagues would shun such efforts, in part because of academic socialization into the rational model and in part because they fear their inability to handle emotional realities in the classroom. A Philosophy professor told me recently that, after some of her students burst into tears during a discussion of ethical questions about euthanasia, "I gave up ethics for logic courses."

In a little-known but wonderful book by Parker Palmer (1983), *To Know As We Are Known: A Spirituality of Education*, Palmer writes that "teachers must . . . create emotional space in the classroom, space that allows feelings to arise and be dealt with" (p. 83). With Palmer, I believe it is time to take seriously the role emotions play in teaching and learning, and to begin addressing ways not only of creating emotional spaces for learning, but also of using affect to make connections between the realities of our students' worlds and the important intellectual constructs of our courses. At the 1989 meeting of the International Society for Exploring Teaching Alternatives, A. Miller predicted that "emotions will be the new frontier in learning" and S. BeMiller (1990) agreed, saying that the growing faculty interest in such areas as cooperative learning, student motivation, and small group active learning was an indication that emotions "may well be the flagship idea for the future of education."

We delude ourselves if we think that emotions do not already exist in our classrooms. As we seek to explain differential equations, or the causes of the American Revolution, or evolution, or a Tillie Olsen short story, or the sonata-allegro form, or attribution theory, no matter how skillfully, many of our students are sitting there with anxiety, fear, joy, shame, anger, boredom, or excitement. Tony Grasha's (1990) study of student-reported emotions describing ineffective courses included "bored," "frustrated," "angry," and "sad." In effective courses they felt "excited," "happy," "exhausted," and "confident." Significantly, in Grasha's study students listed "stressed" or "stressful" under both, suggesting that tension or, in Piaget's terms, "disequilibrium," has high emotional power and works both for and against learning.

Teaching is, of course, as much socially constructed as anything else, and is inherently manipulative. Do we not stifle students' creativity and render them voiceless when we insist that they always "back up" their arguments, as we say, with concrete examples and evidence? Do we not often paralyze some students when, as in "paper-chase," we ask a question and then direct a particular student to answer? Often, a student does in fact know the right response, but fearful emotions block the effort. Feelings of fear, especially of exposed ignorance, failure, and damaged self-esteem, according to Palmer (1983), are "major barriers" to learning and can cause students to "close down." Which of us has not seen that unmistakeable look, somewhere between terror and embarrassment, that passes across students' faces when confronted with a question they cannot, on the spot, answer, or when they cannot find the right words to express themselves on an issue? At its worst, we risk killing motivation to learn altogether.

By acknowledging the presence of emotions in the classroom, especially student fears (and even our own), we can create the kind of accepting atmosphere that frees students, even in fumbling ways, to explore what they think and feel about a question, text, or issue. In a classroom space where students are encouraged to express their feelings as well as half-formed ideas, knowing that others will respect and build on them, they not only move toward community-based agreement on truth, but also develop more confidence in themselves as learners. We encourage and work with students to write fluently, to think critically, to reason logically, and to compute correctly. Why should we not, in addition, urge them to feel authentically? The most promising way of doing that is to connect their lives to our courses.

Connections in the Classroom

It is no accident that the movement to enhance the quality of teaching and learning has coincided almost exactly with the increasing presence of women in higher education and with the emergence of a new paradigm for knowing and teaching. This model, which many male as well as female teachers exemplify, extends the findings and principles of innumerable recent works and reports on higher education and how students learn, all of which stress the importance of active, involved, connected, and collaborative learning.

This new model of knowing and teaching is seen in the writing and work of Palmer (1983, 1989) and Lee Shulman (1989), but especially in Elizabeth Minnich's *Transforming Knowledge* (1991) and in *Women's Ways of Knowing* (1986) by Mary Field Belenky, Blythe McVicker Clinchy, Nancy Rule Goldberger, and Jill Mattuck Tarule. The latter is a much-criticized, but I think vital, book about teaching and learning, applicable to both women and men. Rather than focusing, as in the old model, on rational analysis, objectivity, critical distance, and competitive learning, the new epistemology-pedagogy affirms intuition, synthesis, empathy, subjectivity, and collaboration. It is holistic rather than fragmented and speaks in the language of matrices and webs rather than linearity and discrete ("hard facts") pieces of evidence.

Above all, the key new concept in learning is "connections," in which teachers help students, as Palmer (1990) puts it, see how to "connect self and subject," "knowledge and autobiography" (p. 14). The authors of *Women's Ways of Knowing* call it "connected teaching" when teacher/student "roles merge," learners work in collaborative groups that "welcome diversity of opinion," and truths emerge as a result of discussions in which "it is assumed that evolving thought will be tentative [and] no one apologizes for uncertainty." Connected teachers are like "midwives," helping students "in giving birth to their own ideas" and drawing out "the truth inside" (1986, pp. 217-23).

To call forth what is inside is an inherently emotional process. To do so requires faculty not only to be more aware of their own internal emotional processes, but also to know more about who their students are holistically, what they already know, and how they learn. Surely half of what constitutes effective teaching is faculty expertise and enthusiasm for the content of our courses. But the other half, according to the new paradigm, is to find ways of connecting our key course concepts and essential learning goals with what we can learn about our students, their voices, their values, their inner worlds, their passions and, most significantly, their considerable experience (including both prior knowledge and misconceptions) with the course material they

join us to learn. We must, then, as William Perry and others have been telling us, learn to listen to our students' many voices in order to connect their experiences with our material.

Lee Shulman (1989) made the idea of connection concrete in his address at the 1989 National AAHE Conference. Drawing pedagogical lessons from Jaime Escalante's extraordinary success teaching AP calculus in the barrios of East Los Angeles, Shulman wrote that the key to effective learning, indeed "the most significant area of progress in cognitive psychology in the last ten years," is precisely this process of connection. The teacher, he wrote, "must connect with what students already know and come up with a set of pedagogical representations, metaphors, analogies, examples, stories, demonstrations, that will connect with those prior understandings, that will make them visible, will correct them when they are off base, and will help the students generate, create, construct, their own representations to replace them" (p. 10).

Shulman's representational example was Escalante in *Stand and Deliver*, using the image of digging a hole in the sand with the excavated pile next to it to illustrate the crucial principle of negative numbers: "plus two, minus two, what do you get?" I have found success invoking images of student living unit situations to illustrate dealing with historical group conflict, and of parent-children conflicts in helping students understand the struggle for independence and self-rule in the American Revolution. Nothing is more important in engaging and motivating students, I believe, than discovering and using metaphors and images that connect developmental issues such as autonomy, individuation, and intimacy with the concepts we are teaching.

Although partly cognitive, the use of representational imagery is a highly affective process. Carl Jung (1971, 1984) suggested that emotions are in fact the connective link between the learner and course content: "feeling is primarily a process that takes place between the ego and a given content ... that imparts to the content a definite *value* in the sense of acceptance or rejection." In this judgment process, in deciding whether to "like" or "dislike" an idea (that is, in imagining one's own autonomy issues with parents as a way of understanding the American Revolution), it is precisely "the feeling function" that for Jung "connects both the subject to the object . . . and the object to the subject" (pp. 89-90). It is feelings, then, that can bring together, or heal, the separation of knower and known in the objective paradigm. As Parker Palmer (1983) wrote, only "spirituality of education," an affective notion, "might yield a knowledge that can heal, not wound, the world" (p. 6).

The purpose of using emotions in the classroom, in sum, though defensible in helping students develop awarenesses and confidence in the affective realm for its own sake, also serves to facilitate student insights about conventional learning goals. Teaching to emotions is motivational. It focuses student attention, arouses interest, connects the student's world to ours, and builds a classroom community. Moreover, emotions trigger memories and code experience, thereby serving as retrieval cues for retention. Emotional experience in the classroom leads to cognitive insight: affect deepens understanding. How to evoke these emotions pedagogically takes us into the Medicine Wheel.

The Medicine Wheel in the Classroom

Four years ago, I twice visited Sinte Gleska College, a Lakota tribally-run institution on the Rosebud Reservation in South Dakota, to work with the faculty on facilitating student participation in class discussions. I gained far more than I gave. Other than first hearing the Lakota (and Confucian) saying on how students learn—"Tell me, and I'll listen/Show me, and I'll understand/Involve me, and I'll learn"—I discovered a book, *The Sacred Tree* (1984), created by the Four Worlds Development Project at the University of Lethbridge in Canada and used in Sinte Gleska freshmen writing courses.

In this book is a representational model, the Medicine Wheel [see Figure 1], an ancient symbol of the North American Indians that depicts in one powerful image the sacredness of the circle to Native American life and the interconnectedness of various aspects of life expressed in four quadrants. Four is a sacred number for many American Indian groups: the four directions, each with its own meaning and gifts [See Appendix A] the four basic elements of the universe, the four races, the four (Lakota) cardinal virtues. Most importantly for us, the Medicine Wheel also represents a holistic approach to four dimensions of learning: mental, emotional, physical, and spiritual.

The Medicine Wheel corresponds exactly with an early and fundamental idea in Jung, "the fourfold structure of the psyche," which, according to von Franz and Hillman (1971, 1984), he "found confirmation of . . . everywhere in myths and religious symbolism" (p. 2). Note also that this fourfold model coincides with two of the polarity indices of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator: thinking and feeling and sensation and intuition. Not incidentally, I believe, the "cycle of learning" in both David Kolb's Learning Style Inventory and the Gestalt therapeutic learning theory of figure/ground, contact,

awareness and resolution (or closure) follow this same circular representational model.

In the many workshops I have led around the country in recent years, nothing arouses more faculty (or student) interest than the Medicine Wheel. Faculty instantly recognize that we spend much of our time teaching primarily to one-quarter of our students' learning potential. In the pedagogical implications of the Medicine Wheel we can find many strategies for focusing on the long-ignored emotional and spiritual aspects of student learning. The remainder of this article will briefly describe some of the strategies implied

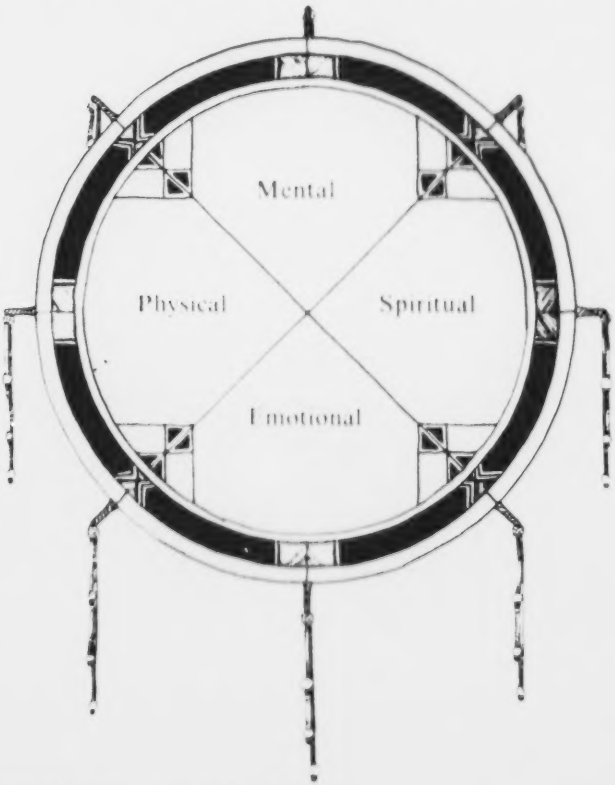

FIGURE 1. The Medicine Wheel

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by the Medicine Wheel. With the imagination of creative teachers and faculty developers, the possibilities are limitless. The following are a few of mine.

The first, quite simply, is to introduce students to the Medicine Wheel, and to suggest that they keep the four dimensions in mind as they read a text, confront a problem, or are introduced to a new concept or skill. Follow up by using the Medicine Wheel to structure the discussion. One can enter the Wheel in any quadrant and then move to the others. For example, when beginning the discussion of a text—*any* "text"—we could ask students to be concrete in dealing with the physicality of the reading, visual or material object, or experience. Invite them to recall vivid scenes or moments from the text using all their senses: "What do you see, hear, feel, smell?" Discussions "go better" (by which I mean more students are more engaged with the text and discussion) when we begin with concrete images and move then to the themes and patterns that emerge from the concreteness. We could, however, begin, as we most often do, at the cognitive mental level or, as a group, we could derive themes, patterns, and issues from a list of concrete physical images.

I have found that for many texts and topics, whether a book, poem, or artifact, a case study, an experience, or a quantitative problem set or laboratory experiment, it is useful to begin in the South, with emotions. Faculty members regularly report in both workshops and private conversations, especially when invited to describe successful classes, how students' motivation, engagement, energy levels, and even their bowed heads are raised whenever the topic shifts to personal issues they connect with on an emotional level. These invariably involve life stage, developmental, values, and relationships issues, and nearly anything autobiographical. Therefore, where possible, suggest connections between these issues and the particular idea or concept at hand, and begin with affective questions: "What were your feelings doing this assignment? Reading this text? Doing this experiment?" "How does this text/issue/problem relate to your life?" As a follow-up to generating a list of emotional reactions, ask what specific moment in the text or topic triggered particular feelings, and then move Northward, from "words, images and feelings" (emotive-intuitive) to "themes, issues, and patterns" (mental-intellectual).

Story-telling is an almost ideal strategy for illustrating the interconnectedness of the four quadrants of the Medicine Wheel, especially the relationship between feeling and thinking. Asking students to tell stories connects their lives with course content ("self and subject") and affirms their prior experiences with the themes and issues of the course: "Tell a story about a successful experience with math, or some quantitative problem," or "with an

artistic project," or "as a leader," or "when dealing with a social science policy issue," or "when you needed to reconstruct the past in order to deal with the present," or "with understanding a natural phenomenon," or "with a religious concern." There is, in fact, no course or discipline with which students have not had some prior experience or feelings, including their apprehensions and eager anticipations entering a new course.

By asking students to tell a success story, or perhaps an illustrative "failure" they learned from, in some combination of writing and orally in small groups, the teacher puts them in touch with themselves at their most confident best, empowered to reflect on ways in which *their* lives matter in terms of the course. Telling stories not only affirms students' experiences and voices, but also validates *different* student voices. From narratives the class hears about the experiences and learns to value the diversity of multicultural voices in the class, women as well as men, black as well as white, rural as well as suburban or urban. Stories, moreover, are an excellent way to build community and trust in a class as well as for teachers to learn who their students are.

In writing and telling their narratives, and in listening to others, I suggest to students that they pay attention to details that would give the story more concreteness and context, as well as to note emotionally laden key words and metaphors we all use when telling a story. In debriefing, or making the transition from student stories to course themes, ask students, again in small groups or as a whole class, to focus on the single moment in their narrative that had the most emotional (or spiritual, or physical) power for them. Listen to a few and write the power images and words on the board. Then step back and ask the class what themes, patterns, and issues they see in these central images from the stories. In this way, we move from South to North in the Medicine Wheel. Furthermore, in this way we humanize and particularize the connections between student lives and the themes of a course.

The Medicine Wheel, then, suggests various ways of connecting autobiographical experiences, emotional responses, and affective imagery on the one hand with cognitive concreteness, rational observations, and reflective critical thinking on the other. The Wheel also suggests the pedagogical power, rooted in cognitive dissonance and disequilibrium theory, of challenging students' normal learning patterns. For example, present students with any anomaly, puzzle, psychic phenomenon, or dissonant image that defies conventional explanations and ask them to solve or interpret the problem: a mathematical word puzzle, numbers that do not "compute," a visual image with several conflicting symbols in it, an "out-of-body" spiritual experience, or a multi-media presentation with inspiring music and depress-

ing visuals. To deal with the dissonance, students will use the full developmental potential of the Medicine Wheel: disequilibrium invariably evokes affect as well as the consideration of both intuitive and empirical explanations.

A variation is to invite students to reverse their normally expected modes of learning. For example, many teachers of quantitative subjects (Mathematics, Economics, Statistics, and Computer Science) have had much success in asking students to write narrative or autobiographical stories about the process of how they go about solving or working their way through a problem. Some suggest constructing a dialogue with oneself, explaining each step of the proof. This exercise in metacognition, which is applicable in any discipline, teaches students *how* they learn while actually in the process of learning.

In verbal, narrative fields, switch students from words, or conventional verbal language, to art or mathematical symbolism. One day, while teaching a particularly difficult text on American Indian religion and, disappointed with our collective ability to state the thesis of the book, I asked students to "Draw it! Draw a picture of the thesis." After a few moments of puzzled looks, they went to work. The results were startling and far more successful in beginning to understand Indian religion than the verbal sentences we had been struggling to construct. Although several students created rather linear drawings, many others were able to conceive symbolic and metaphorical images (a lot of circles and interconnected webs, some pictographs, and sacred trees) that captured the essence of the world view far better than we had verbally. In fact, they were beginning, in a rudimentary form, to understand what "thinking Indian" might mean.

In a second example, I recently taught a chapter on the complex psychosexual patterns of "The Woman in Love" from Simone de Beauvoir's *The Second Sex*. The discussion would be difficult, I figured, not only because the text was difficult, but also because of my students' own struggles with intimacy and relationships. In order to get safely into the text I asked them to choose from among several options what they thought was the appropriate mathematical equation for love and relationships. Among the choices were $1/2 + 1/2 = 1$; $1 + 1 = 2$; $1 + 1 = 3$; $1 + 1 = 1$. As we explored the implications of these possibilities (against the background of having two days earlier discussed Henrik Ibsen's *The Doll's House* ["1 + 0 = 1," they said]), the students were able to see the danger of relationships built upon non-whole persons and understood both de Beauvoir and Ibsen better. They concluded that since the developmental outcome of Nora's leaving was in doubt, as was the "miracle" of whether Torvald would change, the "right" equation was x

+ y = z, a possibility I had never considered. Because these were issues of immediate concern, they were deeply connected with the discussion; the use of mathematical symbols gave them an indirect means of discussing a vulnerable topic.

There are, of course, many other strategies that help students connect the various emotional, spiritual, mental, and physical quadrants of the Medicine Wheel with course themes and their own lives. Among them are role-playing, case studies, and debates. Each of these strategies involves students mentally (by choosing sides or adopting a role, and by having to articulate arguments and a particular role or position); physically (by actively moving to one's chosen position); and emotionally (by interacting with others both competitively and collaboratively). If the case or role involves issues that connect with the student personally (relationships, values, life stage issues), then the experience can be spiritual as well.

Two strategies that are particularly moving spiritually, while respecting each student's private definition of a higher power, are meditative exercises and guided imagery. The meditation can be accomplished through free writing, journaling, or quiet reflection: going within oneself to meditate on a topic, issue, experience, or personal strength. In guided imagery the teacher gently steers students through an imagined situation appropriate to a course topic. Or, in practicing a skill, the student can, like a high jumper or diver, "image the steps" to the successful completion of a task. Guided design is particularly powerful in taking students through the experiences of someone not them, either culturally or sexually, as a way of crossing cultural, gender, geographical, and even historical barriers. I have also used a combination guided meditation at the beginning of class simply to help us all become fully *present* in the classroom and to center our thoughts on the texts and topics ahead. The emotional and spiritual impact of such experiences can be heightened by playing appropriate music softly in the background.

Music or an eloquent orator, especially when paired with visual imagery, either in a random collage or closely synchronized, has the potential to evoke powerful emotions and thereby arouse intense student attention and interest. Imagine walking into a History or Speech Communication class hearing a Martin Luther King or Winston Churchill speech, with relevant slides flashing on the screen. Or into an Astronomy class to the music of Holst's "The Planets," or into Geography or Soil Agronomy to the "Pastoral Symphony," or into a social science course greeted by any number of popular songs, or raps, whose lyrics speak to contemporary political, sociological, or economic issues. Although easier in some disciplines than others, there is no course for which, with a little imagination and a lot of help from students themselves,

there is not an appropriate piece of music that can be combined with visual images to evoke the full range of learning potential suggested by the Medicine Wheel.

When I show a series of visual images accompanied by an appropriate musical piece or speech, I prepare students ahead of time by asking them to consider "words, images, and feelings" during the experience and then give them a moment or two after the presentation to write them down and then to talk briefly with someone sitting near them. Then, I invite students to call out the words, images, and feelings evoked by the music and visuals; I write them down on the board as I hear them. As in any brainstorming exercise it is essential that the teacher write down *exactly* what the students say and not change their language.

Once the board, or a transparency, has been filled by their responses, I sit down in the midst of the class and, with them, look at the list and ask, "What patterns, themes, or issues do we see?" The center and focus of the class thus becomes *their* experiences and *their* language. In this way, with a well-chosen set of slides and piece of music, we have established the key integrating themes of a course, sub-unit of a course, or single topic. We have also used the full developmental learning potential of the Medicine Wheel.

Of course, there are dangers in using these strategies. Music and visual imagery evoke deep feelings and possibly disturbing recollections. Role-playing and debates generate heated arguments. Connecting the important issues we teach to student lives often touches sensitive chords. Like the ethics-turned-logic professor, faculty understandably worry that an intense emotional discussion might trigger an outburst from an unstable student or unleash tides of irrationality they feel uncomfortable dealing with. We are concerned, I think appropriately, about infringing on students' personal space and freedom (though rarely do we raise that issue in calling on a student to recite in class or perform mentally). We may be worried, above all, over "What to do if it works?" What if students are exploring, say, gender or racial issues and *really* begin to engage each other in multicultural or male/female differences of experience and perspective? I know that worries many teachers, who are understandably concerned about control and would prefer to avoid such conversations. But such dialogue is indispensable in preparing our students for life in this changing and diverse culture.

At the 1991 AAHE Conference in Washington, Elie Wiesel (1991) said that the most effective way of "educating against hatred" was precisely to "study together" and to learn to listen to and be "sensitive to" the pains, hopes, ideas, and ambitions of others. This happens best when students engage each other and texts in what AAHE planners termed "difficult dialogues." As

Wiesel said, "if a student can respond to a text, he can be moved by a brother or sister." In an era in which higher education is experiencing a serious backlash against efforts to be more inclusive of and sensitive to all peoples and cultures, we cannot let our fears deter us from facilitating these kinds of conversations among our students.

I do not take the fears lightly, and there are actually many things we can do to facilitate the somewhat orderly exchange of "difficult dialogues" and emotions in class. First, we can name, or acknowledge the tensions and agree on some clear boundaries for legitimate behavior. Second, if a particularly heated or inappropriate moment is reached in a discussion, we can always call "time out" and ask students to go into themselves to reflect and write about what has been happening, and then to resume the discussion. Third, when emerging from an emotional experience following a heated discussion, meditation, or music/images presentation, we can suggest to students the importance of spending the first few moments alone with their thoughts and feelings, then making eye contact with someone else and talking together, and finally debriefing as a whole group.

Fourth, and fundamentally, we can trust our students' capacity for restraint and respect, even in the midst of heated disagreements. Groups have a remarkable, even mystical capacity for self-correction. Ultimately, we need to look within at our own risk-taking fears. Arousing feelings in class raises issues of power and control that bring us face to face with ourselves. Perhaps we will see ourselves—consistent with the holistic imagery of the Medicine Wheel—as imperfect, perhaps a little bit insecure, but nonetheless thoroughly lovable and spiritually-valued human beings.

My friend, Nan Nowik, who was as innovatively courageous a teacher as she was in facing her losing battle against cancer, was an expert on reticent students. At Denison University, where she taught American literature and women's studies, and in her work with faculty from the other eleven colleges of the Great Lakes Colleges Association (GLCA), Nan helped hundreds of students deal with their "terror" of speaking in class. At her last GLCA summer teaching workshop, which we did together for ten years, Nan was even more eloquent than usual in sensitizing teachers to the fears and needs of reticent students. She suggested that many professors had themselves once been "reticents," and invited those so self-defined to talk further. Two-thirds of the participants, most of them men, joined her.

Students and professors are not so different. Just below the surface of a faculty member's polished professionalism in front of a class of nineteen-year-olds is a struggle, perhaps with his own teen-ager or her own patriarchal department chair. Behind the student's question about "what you wanted on

this paper," as she or he appears at our office door, is often a deeper personal question: "Do you like me?" "Am I any good?" "Will I make it?" But these are *our* questions too. Unspoken but common to both teachers and students are issues of self-esteem, self-confidence, and autonomy. Each is, in part, deeply emotional.

It is fitting that before she died Nan was working on Louise Erdrich and American Indian women's literature. Nan understood the holistic meaning of the Medicine Wheel and taught us that the emotional terror of a reticent student was a barrier to cognitive learning. She acknowledged the power of feelings and asked both students and herself to risk a little to empower themselves. Like Nan Nowik, we, too, might dare to risk in order to discover the power of emotions to connect our students' lives with our courses and thereby to expand their full capacity to learn.

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Appendix A

Summary Chart, The Gifts of the Four Directions

East

—light
—beginnings
—renewal
—innocence
—guilelessness
—spontaneity
—joy
—capacity to believe in the unseen
—warmth of spirit
—purity
—trust
—hope
—uncritical acceptance of others
—love that doesn't question others and doesn't know itself
—courage
—truthfulness
—birth
—rebirth
—childhood
—illumination
—guidance
—leadership

(Continued on next page.)

—beautiful speech
—vulnerability
—ability to see clearly through complex situations
—watching over others
—guiding others
—seeing situations in perspective
—hope for the people
—trust in your own vision
—ability to focus attention on present time tasks
—concentration
—devotion to the serivce of others

South

—youth
—fullness
—summer
—the heart
—generosity
—sensitivity to the feelings of others
—loyalty
—noble passions
—love (of one person for another)
—balanced development of the physical body
—physical discipline
—control of appetites
—determination
—goal setting
—training senses such as sight, hearing, taste
—musical development
—gracefulness
—appreciation of the arts
—discrimination in sight, hearing and taste
—passionate involvement in the world
—idealism
—emotional attraction to good and repulsion to bad
—compassion
—kindness
—anger at injustice
—repulsion by senseless violence
—feelings refined, developed, controlled
—ability to express hurt and other bad feelings
—ability to express joy and good feelings
—ability to set aside strong feelings in order to serve others

(Continued on next page.)

West

—darkness
—the unknown
—going within
—dreams
—deep inner thoughts
—testing of the will
—perseverance
—stick-to-it-iveness
—consolidating of personal power
—management of power
—spiritual insight
—daily prayer
—meditation
—fasting
—reflection
—contemplation
—silence
—being alone with one's self
—respect for elders
—respect for the spiritual struggles of others
—respect for others' beliefs
—awareness of our spiritual nature
—sacrifice
—humility
—love for the Creator
—commitment to the path of personal development
—commitment to universal life values and a high moral code
—commitment to struggle to assist the development of the people
—ceremony
—clear self-knowledge
—vision (a sense of possibilities and potentialities)

(Continued on next page.)

North

—elders
—wisdom
—thinking
—analyzing
—understanding
—speculating
—calculation
—prediction
—organizing
—categorizing
—discriminating
—criticizing
—problem solving
—imagining
—interpreting
—integrating all
intellectual capacities
—completion
—fulfillment
—lessons of things that end
—capacity to finish what
we begin
—detachment
—freedom from fear
—freedom from hate
—freedom from love
—freedom from
knowledge
—seeing how all things
fit together
—insight
—intuition made
conscious
—sense of how to live a
balanced life
—capacity to dwell in
the center of things,
to see and take the
middle way
—moderation
—justice

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Putting the Teaching Portfolio in Context

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The current education reform movement has focused increasing national attention on the teaching of undergraduates. Green (1990) identifies five factors that have fueled this renewed emphasis on teaching: (a) the aging academic workforce, sometimes referred to as the "graying of the professoriate"; (b) the "plateauing" phenomenon, arising from retrenchment and lack of mobility; (c) changing work values, which emphasize individual rights and de-emphasize bureaucracy; (d) increasingly heterogeneous student bodies, including minority, older, part-time, and underprepared students; and (e) accountability, which encompasses the entire assessment movement.

The latter two factors seem particularly important. Cross (1986), in *Taking Teaching Seriously*, emphasizes two vocal groups of students in the current "buyer's market": "First is the group of low-performing students who *need* good teaching if the access revolution is to have meaning. Second are the adults who are likely to *demand* good teaching if they are to give time and money to the tasks of learning" (p. 2). Such students, Ekroth (1990) notes, must also be taught vital skills: "Today's professors are challenged to teach a student population increasingly diverse in age, levels of academic preparation, styles of learning, and cultural background. Professors are now expected not only to 'cover the material,' but also to help students to think critically, write skillfully, and speak competently" (p. 1). Meeting the challenge of these students requires, as Boyer (1987) suggests, a "renewed interest in general education, in the quality of teaching, and in the evaluation of the undergraduate experience" (p. 7).

Seldin (1990) describes the "demand for faculty accountability" as "a groundswell sweeping across the nation. It has enlisted taxpayers, institutional trustees, financial donors, parents, and students to press colleges and universities to examine the performance of each professor" (p. 3). Hutchings

(1990), in *Assessment and the Way We Work*, emphasizes the need to view assessment in its richest sense as "an enactment of a set of beliefs about the kind of work that matters on our campuses." Such work demands:

> (1) That teaching be taken seriously and rewarded; (2) That assessment not only values teaching, it has a view of learning; (3) Finally, that the culture of assessment is one in which we not only aim toward a particular kind of learning but hold ourselves *accountable* for it; where accountability is not a dirty word (what "they" want), but part and parcel of the way we work. (pp. 6-7)

The scrutiny engendered by accountability is thus not necessarily negative. Philosophical explorations of what it means to be teachers and learners have led to far more emphasis on "cooperation," "collaboration," and "community." The works of Astin (1985, 1987), Boyer (1987, 1990), and Palmer (1983, 1987) highlight dialogue, discussion, and learning communities.

Educators are realizing more and more that "good teachers must be active learners themselves and model for students an active mind at work on significant intellectual tasks" (Cross, 1988, p 7). Peterson (1990), in her Chair's Address at the College Composition and Communication Convention, emphasized that new theories are opening up lines of inquiry into the nature of teaching and redefining the role of the teacher:

> Our current theories demand that we be more than doctors diagnosing problems and prescribing corrective measures, more than entertainers pleasing an audience, more than high priests initiating the chosen into our rituals, more than managers assigning tasks and schedules, more even than coaches who alternately model, critique, cajole, and encourage. Our theories demand that we enter classrooms as knowledgeable, committed learners, willing to join students in the process of learning. This is not a return to the rather thoughtless, atheoretical student-directed practices of 20 years ago, but a tougher stance. It requires respecting students in the deepest sense and recognizing both their integrity and our own as learners. (p. 31)

To encourage movement from thought to action, the American Association of Higher Education (AAHE) has launched a new program entitled "The Teaching Initiative," which is sponsoring projects: (a) to develop cases about college teaching and learning; (b) to improve the training of teaching assistants; and (c) to develop the use of "teaching portfolios" as vehicles for faculty to document and display the quality of their teaching through actual work samples and reflections on those samples.

For many reasons, the teaching portfolio promises to be a particularly viable means to strengthen undergraduate education: (a) it is cost-effective; (b) it is rooted in the context of discipline-related teaching; (c) it debunks the myth that effective teaching cannot be documented; (d) it gives faculty "ownership" of the portfolio process, building on intrinsic motivation; and (e) it capitalizes on the power of constructive consultation to generate meaningful change.

What is the Teaching Portfolio?

Several assumptions underlie the teaching portfolio. First, the teaching process must be viewed as fluid and dynamic, evolving over time. Second, because of the complex nature of the teaching process, evidence of effectiveness must be collected over time from multiple sources to give an accurate, in-depth overview. And, third, teachers themselves—with consultation—should direct the portfolio process, selectively recording teaching accomplishments and reflecting on the choices that result in exemplary teaching.

The portfolio itself, usually described as a 3-5 page document that summarizes teaching strengths, can be incorporated into the *curriculum vitae*. It is backed up by extensive support, often available in appendices, just as a CV emphasizing scholarly research will refer to, but not include, specific documentation. It is important to strike a balance between too much material and too little. Seldin (1990) describes the teaching portfolio as "a factual description of a professor's major strengths and teaching achievements. It describes documents and materials which collectively suggest the scope and quality of a professor's teaching performance. It is to teaching what lists of publications, grants, and honors are to research and scholarship" (p. 4). Waterman (1990) describes it as "a document that a faculty member creates to communicate teaching goals, to summarize accomplishments, and to convey the quality of teaching" (p. 1).

The Teaching Assessment Project at Stanford (Wolf, 1990) relies on teams that specify key teaching tasks on which to focus a portfolio's content. The portfolios themselves contain both captioned artifacts and written commentaries. Thus, portfolios are both selective and reflective, with an emphasis on supported judgments. Building on this work, Edgerton (1991), in fact, endorses a concept of "The Portfolio as Display of Best Work," distinguishing it from what he terms "The Portfolio as Teaching Resume." In this type of portfolio, which focuses on the characteristics of exemplary teaching and the best way to document and display them, four critical tasks form the core: "Planning and preparing for the course; teaching the course; assessing what students learned in the course, and giving them feedback; and keeping up

with the evolving professional discourse about their field and how to teach it" (p. 6). In this approach, portfolio entries consist of work samples tied to reflective explanations in order to "promote a view of teaching as a 'situated act'" (p. 2).

Shore, Foster, Knapper, Nadeau, Neill, and Sim (1986), in a publication of the Canadian Association of University Teachers, *The Teaching Dossier: A Guide to Its Preparation and Use*, provide a detailed summary of items that can be included in a teaching portfolio, organized as: (a) products of good teaching; (b) material from oneself; and (c) information from others, including students and colleagues. (See Appendix A for a similar list of possible inclusions compiled by Waterman.) They also outline five useful steps for creating a portfolio: (a) clarify teaching responsibilities; (b) select criteria for effective teaching; (c) order the criteria; (d) compile back-up evidence; and (e) incorporate the dossier into curriculum vita.

The portfolio concept has a long history. It has been used for decades by artists, photographers, and architects to document creativity and expertise. Knapper (personal communication, July 23, 1990) also points out that the teaching dossier has been used in academic circles in Canada since the mid-1970's. *The Teaching Dossier: A Guide to Its Preparation and Use*, initially written in 1980 and revised in 1986, has been widely distributed all over North America and beyond.

Teaching Portfolios are typically compiled for two reasons: (a) to facilitate personnel decisions, specifically promotion and tenure judgments (summative evaluation) or (b) to shape future teaching improvements by documenting and reflecting on past achievements (formative evaluation). The purpose of the portfolio will often dictate its contents. Portfolios intended for promotion and tenure decisions usually contain core materials, such as syllabi and student evaluations, to ensure valid comparisons. Those developed by faculty interested primarily in their own professional growth and development usually reflect more flexibility in their contents and approach.

Virtually everyone familiar with the teaching portfolio—or with instructional improvement in general—recognize that evaluation procedures can play a dual role if handled sensitively. Whitman and Weiss (1982), for instance, argue that "the conflict between faculty development and evaluation is not inherent . . . if it is accepted that both purposes share the long-range goal of improved instruction and student learning" (p. 10). Baker and Mezei (1988) state explicitly that "faculty assessment and faculty development programs should form an interdependent and continuous cycle, supported by a climate of encouragement and reward of initiatives toward

professional growth and renewal" (pp. 101-102). Seldin and Annis (1991) emphasize that:

> It is important to keep in mind that use of the portfolio for personnel decisions is only occasional. Its primary purpose is to improve teaching performance. And it is in the very process of creating the collection of documents and materials that comprise the portfolio that the professor is nudged to: 1) mull over personal teaching activities, 2) rearrange priorities, 3) rethink teaching strategies, 4) plan for the future. Properly developed, the portfolio can be a valuable aid in professional development activities. (p. 4)

Five Reasons for the Viability of the Teaching Portfolio

The teaching portfolio promises to be a potent means to encourage a renewed emphasis on teaching and to promote the fair and objective evaluation and development of faculty.

1. First, the Teaching Portfolio can be cost effective. The belt-tightening on virtually all campuses makes costly innovations to improve undergraduate education unlikely. Mohrman (1991), Dean for Undergraduate Studies at the University of Maryland at College Park, recognizes, as most administrators do, that financial realities will have an impact on reform. "Budget woes will slow us down [at the University of Maryland at College Park]. We're going to be looking at things that don't cost a lot of money" (p. A37). Departmental implementation of teaching portfolios, particularly with an emphasis on collegial consultations, will definitely require investments in time and commitment that translate into dollars. As Lacey (1990) notes: "Collegiality is costly" (p. 99). But because teaching portfolios can be integrated into current evaluation processes without major disruptions (Seldin, 1990, p. 21), such investments can be accomplished by shifting priorities within a department. In uncertain economic times, when funding requests to state legislatures, to foundations, or to private and corporate donors may go unheeded, individual departments unable to initiate more costly teaching reforms such as extensive TA training or reduction of class sizes, can still initiate a portfolio process by rethinking and reallocating faculty time and commitment.

With positive support and leadership from the chair, faculty can focus on procedures, policies, and timetables to implement the portfolio process. Faculty must "buy into" the portfolio process and commit the time and effort needed to work on their own teaching and to serve as consultants to their

colleagues. In institutions with campus-wide faculty development or instructional improvement centers, departmental faculty consultation time can be reduced by taking advantage of the many valuable services these centers provide, usually gratis. Such services might include one-on-one consultation, classroom visits, videotaping, course and curriculum design assistance, and help with the introduction of technological innovations into the classroom.

To develop a viable teaching portfolio program, the ultimate investments must be made, of course, by the individual faculty members assembling the teaching portfolios. Seldin and Annis (1990) emphasize, however, that preparing a teaching portfolio takes less time than most faculty assume. Concentrated effort spread out over parts of only a few days can result in a viable, self-tailored document which can then be further shaped over time as teaching improvements occur. As a matter of practicality, teaching portfolios, if they are to be embraced by faculty, must be manageable and cost effective.

2. The departmental focus results in a second reason for the teaching portfolio's viability. It becomes an effective tool for instructional improvement precisely because it is grounded squarely in discipline-related pedagogy—what Shulman (1987, 1989) calls "pedagogical content knowledge." Edgerton (1989) purports that "teaching is highly context specific, and its true richness can be fully appreciated only by looking at how we teach a particular subject to a particular set of students" (p 15). He suggests that we need a more contextual conception of pedagogy—a rationale for basing the study and practice of teaching on "what is being taught to whom" (Edgerton, 1990, p. xv). Teaching goals, too, are shaped in large part by the different fields of study. Cross (1990) found, after extended experience administering the Teaching Goals Inventory, that:

> Teaching goals in the disciplines are visibly and legitimately different. What and how well students learn bears [sic] some relationship, we hope to what teachers think it is important to teach. If teachers from different disciplines have different teaching goals, then a variety of measures must be used to assess teaching effectiveness. Even more important, teachers themselves must be able to assess how well they are accomplishing their own discipline-related goals. (p. 16)

Emphasis and reflection on teaching from a departmental, discipline-specific basis should thus be a powerful force for change. In fact, as Lucus (1990) suggests, "Academic chairs are the key agents for enhancing the quality of undergraduate education and . . . chairs can be most effective when they are supported by academic administrators who are working toward the same goals and who agree on appropriate strategies for improving teaching."

Teaching, she urges, must become "a valued activity in the department" (p. 65).

3. The teaching portfolio's third potential impact lies in its ability to counter the superficiality or absence of teaching documentation. "Creative teaching, especially at the undergraduate level," notes the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1990), "is difficult to identify, infrequently rewarded, and rarely publicized" (p. 35). Unlike documentation of scholarly activities, teaching assessments—if made at all—often rely only on "student evaluations and 'coffeeroom conversation'" (Watkins, 1990, p. A15). "In the worst case scenario," Weimer (1990) observes, "hearsay spread among teachers, overheard comments from students, and discrete questions to advisees form the eclectic basis from which conclusions are drawn" (p. 112).

Seldin (1990) points out, however, that many researchers and writers agree that "teaching can be assessed as rigorously as research and publication and has been for years in many institutions" (p. 6). The teaching portfolio, with its rich content emphasizing the products of good teaching, with its reflective commentary and course materials, and with its information and observations from others, can provide solid evidence about the quality of teaching effectiveness.

4. A fourth advantage of a teaching portfolio lies in the faculty member's involvement in both documentation and reflection. Because faculty have "ownership" of the portfolio process, they are more likely to act positively as a result of their own reflections. Blackburn and Pitney (1988) conclude after a substantive review of major theories that despite the "voluminous" literature, "there is no universally effective way of motivating individuals" (p. 7). McKeachie (1979) postulates, however, that faculty are intrinsically motivated individuals, an assumption shared by Cross (1990): "The research suggests that college faculty members are more likely than people who have chosen other careers to respond to intrinsic motivators" (p 17). Such motivators might include the intellectual challenge of preparing a synthesizing lecture or the satisfaction of seeing students in cooperative small groups "discovering" knowledge and gaining insights from one another. Cross emphasizes:

> Research into the characteristics of college faculty show them to be achievement oriented, intellectually curious, and autonomous. I therefore assume that most teachers want to be really good teachers, that they enjoy the intellectual challenge of discovering how to teach for maximum effect, and that they are self-motivated and self-renewing once started on the path of

addressing a challenge to their intellectual curiosity and love of problem solving. (p. 17)

5. The final advantage of using teaching portfolios lies in the value of the consultation process itself. Seldin (Watkins, 1990) notes: "Good portfolios are collegial efforts. Few people can work alone and do a portfolio. You need help from some 'other'—it might be a department chairman or a faculty member or a teaching improvement specialist—to structure the portfolio and to decide what goes in it" (p. A15). Edgerton (1991) also considers this an important finding: "Portfolios can and probably should be designed in *collaboration* with a colleague" (p. 9).

The value of one-on-one consultation for improving teaching effectiveness has been well documented in the literature (Brinko, 1990; Erickson & Erickson, 1979; Katz & Henry, 1988; Menges & Brinko, 1986; Mortensen, 1982; Stevens & Aleamoni, 1985; Wilson, 1986). As Erickson and Erickson (1979) note: "Instructors who go through the teaching consultation procedure make qualitative changes in their teaching skill performance which are evident to students in subsequent courses. . . . The results also indicate that the improvements in their teaching skill performance are relatively long-lived" (p. 682).

Change is likely to occur as a result of consultation when the suggested teaching modifications are specific. Wilson (1986) cautions that "the more behavioral, specific, or concrete a suggestion is, the more likely it is that it will affect students' perceptions of his or her teaching" (p. 206). Carroll and Goldberg (1985) also emphasize "the critical importance of explicit goal setting and focused feedback for changing instructors' teaching behavior" (p. 451).

Peer classroom observations, because they reflect a "situated act" involving students, faculty member(s), specific content, and learning activities in a classroom environment, are one of the most effective ways to engender dialogues about teaching. Such visitations should be considered by any faculty member contemplating a teaching portfolio that will concretely document classroom interactions and effectiveness. Those expressing reservations about the process and validity of classroom observations (Bergman, 1980; Centra, 1976, 1979; Doyle, 1983; French-Lazovik, 1981; and Weimer, Kerns, & Parrett, 1988) tend to emphasize the pitfalls of poorly conceived or conducted observations used for summative evaluations. Successful programs such as the Peer Visit Program at the University of Maryland University College (Millis, 1989), emphasize collegiality and the expectation of positive change. Trained, experienced faculty, who are noted for their teaching ability and interpersonal skills, conduct the 80-125 peer visits that occur each semester. Through a Teaching Action Plan (See Appendix B), the

visitors help faculty members, often adjuncts new to the institution, but rarely new to teaching, identify specific ways to improve their teaching.

The likelihood of positive change increases when (a) mutual trust and respect exists between the two parties in consultation; and (b) the feedback on teaching is concrete and specific. Trust can develop if the consultation occurs in a context of the "colleague as helper" (Weimer, 1990). Wilkerson (1988) notes:

> A collaborative approach recognizes the professional status of both the teacher and the observer. It can help reduce the threat perceived by the teacher in being observed, lessen the impact of observer bias, and enhance the skills of the teacher in accurately assessing and improving his or her own teaching. Collaborative observation is characterized by the use of a pre-observation conference, descriptive observation notes, and teacher direction of the post-observation conference. (p. 96)

Weimer (1990) recommends several ways to ensure that classroom visits encourage the collegiality needed for viable growth and change. Observations should be reciprocal, she suggests, making them a shared responsibility. Furthermore, the faculty members do not necessarily have to be in the same discipline. When the pairs are from different departments, there is less anxiety, more confidentiality, and a greater emphasis on viewing instruction from a student perspective (p. 119). Observations should not be a one-time, hit-or-miss proposition. To be effective and fair, they must be ongoing occurrences (p. 122).

Faculty themselves feel positive about instructional consultation with colleagues, as reported by Centra (1976), Blackburn, Pellino, Boberg, & O'Connell, (1980); Boice & Turner (1989), and Millis (1989). Menges (1987) notes:

> Effectiveness of colleagues as consultants in the teaching improvement process has yet to be validated against criteria of student learning. As far as faculty participants are concerned, however, findings are clear: participants report high satisfaction, more interaction with other faculty members, increased motivation, and renewed interest in teaching. (p. 91)

This mentoring process has benefits for both the person visited and the visitor, as noted by Holmes (1988). Edgerton (1988) characterizes such exchanges as "collegial dialogue" and suggests that "we must move to a culture in which peer review of teaching is as common as peer review of research . . . a culture in which professors ask their colleagues for comment

on the syllabus of a course as routinely as they ask for comment on the prospectus of a book" (p. 8).

The Teaching Portfolio and the New Scholarship

Many educators, including Boyer (1987), have deplored the imbalance between research and teaching. Few have been more vocal than Eble (1990):

> The impact of the research fetish on undergraduate education has been ruinous. It is largely responsible for the incoherence of the curriculum as well as for its unwholesome and unattractive aspects. It is directly responsible for narrowing the conception of both teaching and learning and of debasing the general worth of both. It is directly responsible for distorting the academic reward system so that the necessary diversity of higher education—of which maintaining strong undergraduate education is a foremost concern—is badly served. And it has trivialized much learning, deadened a great deal of instruction, and distorted our conceptions of what is to be learned and how one might go about it. Among its other adverse consequences are the immense waste of young brain power and the human and economic burden of publishing and accumulating and storing information. (p. 16)

Schaefer (1990) has similarly charged that the "publication of scholarly drivel" is "an obsession that has diminished the classroom experience and has cheated generations of unsuspecting students" (p. xii).

Cheney (1990), chairman of the National Endowment for the Humanities, notes that this emphasis on research has affected the public schools as well:

> Among today's college students are tomorrow's teachers; and if their curricula have been haphazard, they may well know less than they should about the subjects they will teach. If they have been taught in an indifferent fashion, they will be less likely to know how to teach well themselves. (p. 34)

Recently there has been a strong movement toward an enlarged view of scholarship, which Rice (1990) finds "congruent with the rich diversity that is the hallmark of American higher education; one that is more appropriate, more authentic, and more adaptive for both our institutions and the day-to-day working lives of our faculty" (p. 1).

The recent publication of the Carnegie Foundation's special report, authored by Boyer (1990), *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate*, promises to help create a redefinition of what it means to be a

scholar. Yanikoski, Associate Vice-President for Academic Affairs at De-Paul University, comments: "The Carnegie sponsorship can lend an air of acceptability to the public discussion of this issue in a way that one institution or one academic leader would find awkward" (Leatherman, 1990, p. A16).

Boyer calls for four general views of scholarship—discovery, integration, application, and teaching. The scholarship of teaching emphasizes content knowledge, pedagogical procedures to "build bridges between the teacher's understanding and the students' learning" and to "create a common ground of intellectual commitment, and a communal approach that involves the teacher as a learner as well, one who can transfer and extend knowledge" (pp. 23-24).

Boyer reminds us, however, that ideas alone are not sufficient and that teaching must be vigorously assessed, using universally recognized and respected criteria. Evidence should come at the very least from peers, from students, and from self-assessment. The activities and documentation Boyer describes echo exactly the "selection" and "reflection"—evidence supported by explanatory, exploratory statements—advocated for a teaching portfolio. In fact, he states directly: "When it comes to pulling all the evidence together, we are impressed by the **portfolio** idea—a procedure that encourages faculty to document their work in a variety of ways" (p. 40).

Conclusion

The teaching portfolio is an idea whose time has come. Many institutions, such as the University of Missouri and the University of Maryland College Park, have endorsed its use, and the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development has initiated a clearing house and network on teaching portfolios. Portfolios can help teachers and administrators shift priorities to better serve students, the community, and the nation. As Botstein (1990) reminds us: "The 'bottom line' is never bureaucratic or fiscal. It is what is learned, created, and discovered by faculty and students" (p. 40). The teaching portfolio ensures that we capture the essence of these experiences.

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Appendix A

Items That Might Be Included in a Teaching Dossier

Roles, Responsibilities, and Goals:

___A statement of teaching roles and responsibilities

___A reflective statement of teaching goals and approaches

___A list of courses taught, with enrollments and comments as to if new, team-taught, etc.

___Number of advisees, grad and undergrad

Contributions to Institution or Profession:

___Service on teaching committees

___Development of student apprentice programs

___Assistance to colleagues on teaching

___Review of texts, etc.

___Publications in teaching journals

___Work on curriculum revision or development

___Obtaining funds/equipment for teaching labs, programs

___Provision of training in teaching for graduate students

Activities to Improve Instruction:

___Participation in seminars or professional meetings on teaching

___Design of new courses

___Design of interdisciplinary or collaborative courses or teaching projects

___Use of new methods of teaching, assessing learning, grading

___Preparation of a textbook, courseware, etc.

___Description of instructional improvement projects developed or carried out

Honors or Recognitions:

___Teaching awards from department, school

___Teaching awards from profession

___Invitations based on teaching reputation to consult, give workshops, write articles, etc.

___Requests for advice on teaching by committees or other organized groups

Representative Course Materials:

___Syllabuses

___Course descriptions with details of content, objectives, methods, and procedures for evaluating student learning

___Reading lists

___Assignments

___Exams and quizzes, graded and ungraded

___Handouts, problem sets, lecture outlines

___Descriptions and examples of visual materials used

___Descriptions of uses of computer or other technology in teaching

(Continued on next page.)

Materials Showing Extent of Student Learning:

___Scores on standardized or other tests, before and after instruction

___Students' lab books, or other workbooks

___Students' papers, essays or creative works

___Graded work from the best and poorest students with teacher's feedback to students

___Instructor's written feedback on student work

Evaluations of Teaching:

___Summarized student evaluations of teaching, including response rate and students' written comments and overall ratings

___Results of students' exit interviews

___Letters from students, preferably unsolicited

___Comments from a peer observer or colleague teaching the same course

___Letter from division head or chairperson

Miscellaneous Sources on Teaching Effectiveness:

___Comments from students' parents or employers

___Statements from colleagues in the department or elsewhere, re: preparation of students for advanced work

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Appendix B

Teaching Action Plan

NAME | COURSE

DATE | SECTION NO.

Area of Change	Suggested Change	Change will occur in following semester	Timetable, if Applicable	Record of Action
Cooperation				
Active Learning				
Respects Diversity				
Other				

Recognition from Parents: A Variation on Traditional Teaching Awards

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Background

Recognition awards for outstanding teaching have been used for several decades as incentives for faculty. Many instructional or faculty development programs use them as one of the elements in a comprehensive program. In recent literature, Began (1981), Kozma (1979), Chait and Goeths (1981) and others have recognized the teaching award as part of the incentive structure. A study by Fenker (1977) suggested that faculty highly valued the recognition of outstanding teaching. Awards ranked among the highest incentives for individuals, with only sabbaticals or leaves, promotion or tenure, or salary increases being valued more.

These awards vary in title and form, but are alike in that they generally require supportive documentation that goes through a competitive procedure resulting in a small number being selected for the award. Public recognition, and sometimes a cash award, provide reinforcing encouragement to those who receive this award. Unfortunately, those who are not in the professorial ranks may be excluded from eligibility. In large universities, this disqualifies many members of the teaching staffs: instructors, professional advisors, adjuncts, and teaching assistants.

Identification of Need

In the fall of 1988, after a series of budget cuts, the Teaching Council at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln was forced to seek low-cost ways of encouraging good teaching at the University. Because this group was respon-

sible for selection of campus-wide teaching award winners, it was natural for it to be concerned about providing some visible recognition for those who were effective teachers. Coincidentally, a University Parents' Association had been newly organized and was examining possible projects. They, too, had few funds. Under these conditions, the idea for a Parents' Recognition Award was initiated.

Description of the Award

The Parents' Awards for Significant Contributions to Students are made annually to an unlimited number of faculty or staff who work with students. Every parent of an undergraduate University student receives a nomination form on a mail-back postcard. Timing is important. The forms are mailed the week before a holiday break and parents are encouraged to confer with their sons or daughters during this period. Parents are asked to identify individuals who have made a significant contribution to their sons' or daughters' lives as students. Further, they are asked to name the person and his/her department, and to write a few sentences about the contribution that was made. Nominations are compiled, and recipients are notified. Chairs and Deans are also told which faculty in their units will be recognized.

A side benefit accrues to those who review the nominations, because it is a very pleasant task to read the glowing comments. The testimonies of parents and students convey inspirational examples of good teaching. The following quotes are from nominations:

"... most importantly, always acts like the student is the most important part of his job."

"... excellent instructor, caring individual, brings quality to UNL and the State."

"He has the ability to keep the students on the edge of their seats wanting to know more about the subject, thus creating a desire for the student to put more effort into the class."

"He coaxes, cajoles, gently prods and pushes to get the very best from his students."

"Fantastic lecturer. Able to make complex topics manageable. Available outside of the classroom to give help."

"She has helped, guided, and encouraged our daughter to explore her full potential."

"A very enthusiastic, excellent teacher; you could feel she enjoyed her teaching and that made it exciting for the students."

"He encourages and demands his students to think independently and ... to develop a personal philosophy towards theatre and their purpose in it."

"He is a superb teacher. Not only an extraordinary command of his subject, but very knowledgeable, yet understandable, his teaching strategy has worked remarkably well with me."

Listing these quotes in the campus faculty newsletter also helps make faculty more aware of teaching behaviors that students value.

A reception, followed by an awards ceremony, provides the appropriate setting for public recognition. All who are nominated receive a certificate of recognition. After refreshments are served, the Chancellor, the President of the University Parents' Association, and the Chair of the Teaching Council make remarks on the value of being an effective teacher and advisor. Each recipient receives the Award certificate from his/her own College Dean and is listed in a souvenir program.

Benefits of the Award

1. Students are encouraged to communicate with parents about the good things that happen to them at the University.

2. Recipients value this Award because they know it came from a student who appreciated their efforts.

3. New faculty members who receive this Award benefit from early positive feedback from students.

4. The Award is not competitive; therefore, an unlimited number can be given and everyone has a chance of receiving it.

5. Individuals who would not be eligible for the few Distinguished Teaching Awards can receive this recognition; therefore, it has broader impact.

6. Faculty receiving this Award more than once can demonstrate patterns of teaching effectiveness.

7. The Teaching Council reaches its goal of encouraging good teaching with this low-cost teaching Award.

8. Parents' Association members value the opportunity to participate in a campus project that encourages a better learning environment for their daughters and sons.

9. Publicity about the Award communicates to the people in the State that this University significantly affects individual students.

Lessons Learned

Over the past three years, we have identified a variety of problems resulting from the Parents' Recognition Award Program. During the first year, for example, two of the recipients were not rehired for reasons other

than teaching ineffectiveness, and this resulted in an embarrassing situation. Currently, the Deans review lists of recipients to prevent such problems.

It is important to be sure all interested officials are included in the recognition ceremony. All academic administrators of the University as well as members of the Board of Regents are invited to attend. Not everyone who is invited participates, but all appreciate being notified and included.

Unresolved Issues

In some cases, the title of the Award may communicate more importance than is warranted. Because one nomination is all that is required for someone to receive the Award, it is possible that some poor teachers could also be recognized. The Teaching Council reviewed the awards process and recognized that pressures could be brought to bear on students to make nominations. A faculty member who wished to add this honor to his/her vita might suggest to a student that he/she put forth a nomination. Of course, if no Award was announced, it would be clear that the student had not followed the suggestion. That could put the student in an awkward position. Recipients often request that the nominating paragraph be put in their personnel files. It is not surprising that they want to know who submitted the nomination and the reason. The Teaching Council, after much discussion, concluded that this information should be confidential to avoid any charges of favoritism or manipulation.

Conclusion

While we have not conducted a systematic evaluation of the Parents' Recognition Award Program, informal feedback from faculty, parents, and students has been very positive. The overall impact appears to be broad. A great many people—full professors, new faculty, part-time faculty, teaching assistants, professional advisors—are getting a "pat on the back" for a job well done. This recognition is included in the individual's annual review data, so it has the potential for positively affecting salary and promotion decisions. This encourages a great many individuals to continue attending to student needs. Further, making the nomination requires parents to talk with students about the positive things that have happened in their university experience. In short, it gives parents a greater sense of involvement. The institution, in turn, benefits from comments that dispel the myth that it is a cold and uncaring place. Cost is low, and return is high. It is a winning situation. What more could a faculty developer want in a program?

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Coping with the Academic "Tragedy of the Commons": Renovating Classrooms at Carnegie Mellon University

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In the December 1968 issue of *Science*, the biologist, Garrett Hardin, discussed what he termed "the tragedy of the commons." Picture a pasture open to all, he suggested. Each herder, assuming that adding one or two more cattle will do no harm, will keep as many cattle as possible there, but when all herders act on this premise, the pasture will soon become a wasteland with dire consequences to both cattle and people. Hardin used this example to dramatize the problems posed by pollution. All of us add our share to the pollutants that foul our water and air. Eventually, the effects of this activity can poison the planet.

Colleges and universities face a different "tragedy of the commons." Powerful departments and colleges protect their private spaces with militant vigor. They keep research laboratories up to date, make sure that offices for faculty members and staff have the latest equipment, and do battle with each other over scarce resources, particularly funds and space. But in many postsecondary institutions, no one lobbies with equal vigor for common facilities such as classrooms and educational laboratories. Grounds, yes; classrooms, no. After all, prospective students and their parents see the grounds, but except for a few showcase assembly halls, athletic facilities, and dormitories, no one sees classrooms except faculty members and students who soon become accustomed to inferior facilities. The result is an academic tragedy of the commons.

Carnegie Mellon: A Case Study

The situation

In 1984, Carnegie Mellon University's (CMU) classroom space was scattered among eight academic buildings, most of which were constructed more than fifty years ago, a situation common in many institutions (Majority of classrooms found defective, 1986; Schwartz, 1987; Owu, 1991). Many had never been renovated. Lighting and acoustics were far below standard. No rooms were carpeted. Chalkboard space was inadequate for quantitative courses. Old wooden tablet-arm desks bore the traces of generations of graffiti. Every week, a number of window shades were torn from their rollers. All audiovisual equipment except for chalkboards and permanently installed screens came from central facilities, and departments were assessed a fee for every usage. Both the nuisance and the cost discouraged faculty members from using audiovisual materials in their classes. When faculty members complained, renovations were made on an ad hoc basis, but without an overall plan to bring all facilities up to an agreed-upon standard. Ironically, these conditions existed in a University with, arguably, the most sophisticated and comprehensive computer system in the nation.

But obsolete facilities were only part of the problem at CMU. Under the administration of President Richard M. Cyert, research had grown dramatically, and as a result, what we came to call the Research Pac Man gobbled up classroom space at an alarming rate. President Cyert's strategic plan focused on hiring excellent researcher-teachers who either brought grants with them or soon acquired funding. What was the University to do when several million dollars in grant money depended on the availability of more space? In all too many cases, it gobbled up classrooms during a period when both the undergraduate and the graduate enrollments were growing. We were on the verge of a classroom crisis.

1. An action plan and its recommendations

Then the administration decided to take action. Vice President John P. Crecine asked 13 winners of the University's Ryan Teaching Award to develop recommendations for the improvement of the University's educational facilities. After widespread consultation throughout the faculty and staff, the Planning Committee issued a report containing eight recommendations. Seven of the suggested reforms (all except new undergraduate science laboratories) have already been accomplished or are on the planning boards

for the near future. Four of these recommendations had an impact on classrooms and lecture halls. They were:

1. Establish a standing committee to assist in the planning and design of educational facilities. Members should be people who use the facilities and have broad knowledge of educational facility needs within their colleges and the University as a whole.

2. Designate one administrator as a "Classroom Czar" responsible for coordinating classroom maintenance.

3. Add enough additional money to the sums now projected for classroom renovation to renew and equip at least four lecture halls a year for the next four years. Each hall should have one or more features such as video monitors, double screens for slide projection, or data projection equipment suitable to the needs of the faculty who use the facility.

4. Increase annual budget expenditures for audiovisual and graphic delivery and production services in order to encourage their use for educational purposes. This recommendation implies that audiovisual equipment should be delivered, operated, and picked up without charge to departments and that charges for AV and graphic production for classroom use should be reduced or eliminated.

2. The Educational Facilities Committee

The University's Resource and Capital Allocation Boards accepted these recommendations and increased the annual appropriation for classroom renovations from $150,000 to $300,000. This decision launched the Educational Facilities Committee (EFC) to which the Boards gave responsibility to set priorities for the renovation of all registrar-controlled classrooms—not only the 16 lecture halls suggested in the Planning Committee's report, but also the 44 smaller registrar-controlled rooms. The mandate did not cover the 21 classrooms, nine seminar rooms, and 19 conference rooms that fell under the control of individual departments or colleges. Most of them were in excellent condition anyway because each department or college renovated and furnished its own seminar and meeting rooms. The EFC, as appointed by Vice President Crecine, consisted of one representative from each of the University's seven colleges, the Registrar, the Director of Planning, three staff members from Instructional Technology, a project architect, a designer, and the Director of Construction from Physical Plant.

How the Committee functions

Chaired first by Professor James Hoburg of the Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, and two years later by Edwin Fenton, Co-Direc-

tor of the University Teaching Center and Professor of History, the Committee began to work. We decided to renovate the lecture halls in order from worst to best and then to tackle classrooms in the same order. We were able to identify and rank the lecture halls with little trouble. Our members from Physical Plant informed us they had funds under their budgets to renovate HVAC (heating, ventilation, and air conditioning), saving our funds for other purposes.

First, Professor Hoburg sent a memo to every faculty member asking for suggestions as we began to plan renovations. About 20 percent of the faculty responded to his request, identifying a number of renovations that none of the Committee members had thought about. Then, Hoburg began a series of Committee breakfast meetings, the only time which fit all our schedules. The project architect, relying heavily on national recommendations for classrooms (Ramsey & Sleeper, 1981; Reznikoff, 1986) worked up plans and estimates for each room we identified, submitted them to the Committee, and got a go-ahead to make drawings so that the work could proceed during the summer. In some instances, we had the work done in-house; in others, particularly when extensive renovations were called for, Physical Plant farmed the work out to the lowest bidder. After five years of experience, the Committee now meets five or six times a year, with much preliminary planning falling to subcommittees and the actual work of renovation in the hands of Physical Plant. Minutes of each meeting comprise a record of our decisions.

We have assessed needs in four ways. First, every two years we have sent questionnaires to the entire faculty asking them for suggestions. Last fall, we asked for comments about all of the rooms we had renovated thus far and received 70 responses, largely about minor irritations—for example, broken tablet arms, drapes that did not quite close, and sliding chalkboards that rose so high shorter faculty members could not reach them. We took these suggestions to mean that the major renovations were acceptable. Second, subcommittees have twice spent several days during winter breaks walking through all of the classrooms, making plans for major renovations, and deciding which rooms to tackle next. Third, we have hired a retired public school teacher to inspect the classrooms weekly and submit work orders for repairs, orders that have provided valuable information to the Committee. Finally, we receive a number of unsolicited suggestions each year from faculty members, again usually about minor irritants.

Students have played only minor roles in these developments. Before our renovations began, complaints about poor acoustics, poor lighting, or the absence of tablet-arm chairs for left-handed students occasionally reached

the ears of administrators, but, in general, students seemed willing to accept classrooms as they found them. When asked by Committee members, however, students who had seen rooms transformed over a summer commented that the new versions were far more pleasant than the old ones. Even though we have received no complaints about renovations from students, we believe in retrospect that we missed an opportunity to get their advice about what they would like to see in classrooms.

The roles of Committee members

The Educational Facilities Committee includes 15 members, each of whom plays an important role. They are:

Seven faculty members, one from each college. Each of the University's seven colleges has one member on the Committee. The Dean appoints this person. Three members have served since the Committee began, and no college has had more than two appointees. Willingness to serve stems from two factors: the relatively infrequent meetings of the Committee and the general belief that the Committee does something rather than merely turn in reports. Each Committee member represents the interest of his or her college, but no rancor has developed over this role, perhaps because the Committee established a principle governing priorities for renovating rooms that forestalled debate over what should come first. Nevertheless, Committee members have proved to be valuable conduits for requests from within colleges.

A representative from the University's Planning Department. This individual supplies information about the numbers of students enrolled in courses, general university plans, and the activities of the major administrative boards to which our Committee reports. This representative also serves as a liaison to the Resource and Capital Allocation Boards.

Three representatives from Academic Computing & Instructional Technology. These people include the department chair, an expert in electronic equipment, and the person who oversees delivery and maintenance of audiovisual equipment to classrooms. Each lends expert knowledge about a vital specialty.

The Registrar. The Registrar provides information about enrollment and demands for different sizes and types of classrooms, and makes sure that no classes are scheduled during the summer or midwinter break in rooms being renovated.

An architect. The Physical Plant architect is in charge of planning and estimating each renovation and of submitting plans for review by the Committee. The architect and a Project Manager from Physical Plant monitor the

construction process whether done by outside contractors or by Physical Plant crews.

A designer. The Physical Plant interior designer works closely with the architect in selecting carpets, drapes, furniture, and coordinated color schemes.

The Construction Director. The Director of Construction in Physical Plant determines strategies for construction bidding and negotiating or for assigning the work to Physical Plant personnel. The Director sees that construction costs are monitored through the entire construction process, and also advises the design team on evaluating systems for constructability and on scheduling.

Committee Funding

Money has come from four major sources. First, the University has allocated $300,000 each year for the past six years to the Committee, a total of $1,800,000. We have been assured by the administration that this funding will continue until the Committee reports that the job is done. Second, the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania has given each postsecondary institution in the state a sum of money during four of the past five years to purchase instructional technology for use in classrooms. CMU's portion of these funds, which depends on the number of Pennsylvania residents enrolled, has approximated $245,000 annually, a total of $735,000. Third, as I have already indicated, Physical Plant has used its appropriations to renovate heating, ventilation, and air conditioning, approximately $100,000 during the past six years. Finally, the University has built and paid for one additional lecture hall and seven new classrooms as it renovated old buildings recently acquired from the federal government.

These are substantial sums, but they have come from numerous budgets and have been spread over a six-year period. Compared to other capital improvements at CMU, moreover, they have had a marked impact per dollar spent. Every CMU student uses these new classrooms several times a day. One new research laboratory for an incoming senior scientist and his or her associates can cost more than $1,000,000. Renovating chemistry laboratories used primarily by freshman students for their lab classes will cost $8,000,000. Nothing the University has done in recent years has made such a dramatic impact per dollar spent on the quality of academic life as the classroom renovation project.

In addition to these developments, the University has built a comprehensive and sophisticated computer network costing millions of dollars which plays an increasingly important educational role (Cursor, October, 1990;

January and February, 1991). The network contains about 12,000 outlets, and at least one in each University room including all dormitory rooms, to which are connected about 7,500 PC's or work stations. During the past decade, CMU has located four hundred of these machines in 18 public clusters which contain between 4 and 50 machines each. Thirteen of these clusters are open 24 hours daily. Eight of the public clusters are dual purpose—that is, faculty members may reserve them for classes, but if no classes are taking place, individual students may use the machines. An additional 320 machines are located in departmentally controlled clusters.

During the fall, 1990 semester, clusters were reserved for teaching purposes for nearly 1800 hours by faculty members from 12 departments. The availability of modern computing hardware and a large and increasing software collection is rapidly transforming the ways in which many courses are taught. The Educational Facilities Committee has cheered the development of this computing system and contributed slightly to it, but, on the whole, the computing system has grown independently of the EFC.

3. The results: improved facilities and enhanced learning

Improved Facilities

Six major improvements have resulted from the decision of the University to set up this Committee.

- ***Modernized lecture halls.*** All of the University's lecture halls have been brought up to standards established by our architects in such areas as HVAC, lighting, furnishings, aesthetics, and audiovisual equipment. In four instances, we gutted old halls and began anew. These four rooms are now among the best in the University. In the remaining cases, we were able to make more limited changes.
- ***Modernized classrooms.*** We have brought all 44 of the old registrar-controlled classrooms up to standard: HVAC, lighting, new ceilings, carpets, drapes, modern sliding chalkboards, new furnishing in many rooms, and appropriate resident AV equipment.
- ***Additional classrooms which came under the control of the Registrar.*** The Committee offered to renovate two classrooms controlled by Biology and Chemistry and nine classrooms in five departments in the College of Fine Arts if the departments would release them to the control of the Registrar. The departments still get first call on these rooms, but the Registrar may schedule classes from other departments or colleges when the original owners do not schedule them. This reform has added the equivalent of two new classrooms to the stock of space.

- ***Dividing large spaces into two rooms.*** Three classrooms in older buildings were about four times as long as they were wide and seated about 60 students. Prompted by the Planning Office, the Committee divided these classrooms into two rooms each — in one instance, two seminar rooms and in the other two, one smaller classroom and a seminar room. This change added three rooms to the stock under the control of the Registrar.
- ***Installing resident AV equipment.*** The Committee purchased and installed a strong, lockable metal cabinet in every classroom and lecture hall in the University, a project suggested by Instructional Technology. Each one now holds an overhead projector, chalk, and erasers. Many of them also contain other equipment such as a VCR, double slide projectors, a film projector, sound equipment, or any other equipment a faculty member needs on a regular basis. Faculty get keys to the classroom and the cabinets from Instructional Technology. In addition, each lecture hall and 10 classrooms have video monitors. Six rooms have been equipped with data projectors that project colored images from computers. Two rooms have been outfitted as sophisticated media rooms with a computer that controls a wide range of projection and recording equipment. Instructional Technology delivers any other equipment needed on an irregular basis for regularly scheduled classes from a central store without charges to the user.

  This project has been expensive—the cabinets alone cost $350 each. In the long run, however, these changes will pay for themselves in saved delivery charges and better education. For example, even with the extensive supply of resident AV equipment in classrooms, requests for the delivery of equipment from the central store in Instructional Technology doubled last year. For this reason, we are increasing the supply of resident equipment and reorganizing classroom assignments to get faculty members who consistently use AV equipment into appropriate classrooms. But no matter how much equipment our budget allows us to deploy, we will still need some equipment to be delivered on demand from a central source. The requests from faculty for new computer software and new video releases has increased at a somewhat similar pace. Making the hardware rapidly available has played a major role in this later development.
- ***Maintaining these facilities.*** During the past five years, we have gradually brought the maintenance problem under control. Instead of a Classroom Czar, which the original recommendations suggested, the University placed maintenance in the joint hands of Instructional Tech-

nology and Physical Plant. Each week, Instructional Technology inspects all classroom spaces under the Registrar's control using a checklist which these groups have developed. When something is awry, IT personnel enters it in a data base that is sent weekly to Physical Plant. Once the requested repairs are made, Physical Plant responds so that all parties are fully informed. Although some faculty members still contend that repairs move at a snail's pace, they are much faster than they used to be — immediate for items such as broken windows and usually within four days — and they are less frequent than in former times.

Enhanced Learning

The Committee has identified at least six ways in which these reforms have had an impact on education in CMU's classrooms.

- First, the rooms are far more comfortable and attractive than they used to be; excellent lighting and acoustics, improved HVAC, newly painted walls, new ceilings, and carpeted floors have all contributed to a positive learning atmosphere.
- Second, the renovations have brought additional flexibility to the classrooms. Carpeted floors, for example, facilitate moving chairs from rows to a circle, a much better arrangement for discussions, simply because the carpets reduce the noise level.
- Third, changing the furniture in seven rooms from tablet-arm chairs to tables and chairs has provided excellent teaching space in which students and faculty can see and hear each other well in seminars and small discussion classes.
- Fourth, the use of media in classes has increased by 50 percent each year for the past three years. Both the presence of resident AV equipment in classrooms and the agreement that media will be delivered to classrooms without charge to a department account for much of this change.
- Fifth, the new classrooms have begun to have a marked impact on the curriculum. Both the presence of resident data projectors in five lecture halls and the ease with which data projection devices can be obtained from instructional Technology have encouraged faculty members throughout the University to utilize this technology widely (Cavalier, 1991).
- Finally, improved classrooms have sent a quiet message to faculty members: the University cares about quality teaching and will make substantial efforts to provide the facilities that can improve both teaching and learning.

4. What we have learned

Our six years of experience suggest a number of generalizations which may apply to other colleges and universities with obsolete classroom facilities.

1. Assign responsibility for classroom renovations to a committee similar to ours in which all major actors are represented. Ideally, a staff person from faculty development should head the project or play a substantial role in its deliberations. More than regular faculty members, faculty developers know about the relationship between learning environments and the teaching-learning process. Moreover, an organization such as the Educational Facilities Committee gives a faculty development center visibility throughout the campus and sets up lines of communication with individuals who might not otherwise interact with staff members.

2. Don't let the process become too involved or too time consuming. Our Committee now meets about five times a year for 90 minutes at breakfast. Subcommittees, the University Architect, the Designer, and staff members from Design and Construction do the detailed work, following guidelines that the Committee established.

3. Assess the relationship between the problem and financial support carefully. All classrooms in a university such as ours do not require a full complement of residential AV equipment, for example. We have installed resident video monitors in many rooms, double slide projectors in others, videodiscs elsewhere, data projectors in five lecture halls, and so forth. We placed triple sliding chalkboards in rooms widely used for quantitative courses, but not in rooms used primarily by faculty members from the humanities. Finally, we did not replace many of our old tablet-arm chairs that, although unattractive, were still useable. In later years, we will replace these chairs, but with limited funds we tried to bring all rooms up to acceptable standards rather than build a smaller number of showcase rooms.

4. Consult widely with the faculty. Sending out questionnaires brought us many useful suggestions and indicated clearly that the University was taking dramatic steps to improve educational facilities. A questionnaire to faculty members in Humanities and Social Sciences, for example, revealed that many instructors preferred tables and chairs to conventional tablet-arm chairs. Having a representative on the Committee from each college has provided a useful channel for information.

5. As much as possible, customize classrooms to the needs of departments. Our Modern Language staff requested tables and chairs instead of tablet-arm chairs, a triple sliding chalkboard, both American and European VCR players, two video monitors, and a tape player as resident equipment

in a room near the departmental offices. Both students and faculty testify to the significant improvement these changes have made in instruction. We have installed a whiteboard instead of a chalkboard in a new media-enriched classroom designed mainly for the Art Department whose members like to use colored markers instead of chalk. Customizing causes problems for the Registrar, but our Registrar has learned to live with them.

6. By all means, find a way to deliver media to classrooms without charges to departments. This one reform has multiplied the use of media many fold.

7. Hold workshops on the effective use of media in the classroom. Many faculty members know little or nothing about the use of media or the research that supports it. During one spring semester, CMU's Teaching Center in a cooperative venture with Academic Computing and Instructional Technology conducted a series of seven faculty luncheon seminars on the use of media. Each session featured a faculty member who demonstrated materials which he or she had used effectively (Fenton, 1988).

8. Develop and distribute widely a Guide to Classrooms. Each year, Instructional Technology and University Planning publish a classroom guide (Instructional Technology and University Planning, 1987, and annually thereafter). Among other information, this Guide tells faculty members how to schedule rooms and contains a map of every classroom along with information about accessibility, lighting, seating, screen and chalkboard areas, the location of electrical outlets, air-conditioning, and a list of resident AV equipment. Faculty members can consult the Guide as they request rooms that meet their instructional needs. In addition to sending the Guide to each faculty member, they also have been sent to all departmental offices where secretaries and administrative assistants, who do much of the scheduling, have ready and accurate access to this vital information.

Conclusion

As a result of this entire project, Carnegie Mellon now has classrooms that provide excellent educational environments for students and faculty. The faculty are delighted with the changes they have seen over the last six years. Teaching is much more productive than it used to be now that the classrooms are comfortable and fully equipped. Students now take better care of the classrooms, although torn shades and drapes, spilled drinks, and graffiti on desktops will be with us always. We are convinced that few changes would have been made in lecture halls and classrooms without the work of this Committee. Garrett Hardin would probably be pleased to learn about how we have adapted his environmental warning to university life.

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Front Line Faculty Development: Chairs Constructively Critiquing Colleagues in the Classroom

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Ideally, every institution should have a centralized faculty/instructional development program. In addition to or in the absence of such a development program, individuals in an excellent position to promote faculty growth from the initial interview through retirement are department chairs. Given the current financial stringency coupled with the perennial quest for teaching excellence in higher education, many faculty development programs cannot respond in a timely fashion to all faculty demands for services. At most institutions, requests for intensive, individualized consultation and for group/department consultations far exceed the available consultant time. To solve the problem of consultant supply and faculty demand, training department chairs to shoulder a major responsibility for faculty growth is imperative, for it maximizes the utility of each department head's position. Furthermore, department chairs will no longer be perceived by faculty as just serving leadership and administrative functions, but also as being catalysts for learning and bona fide members of the teaching community.

All professors in higher education are experts in their fields, but few are trained teachers. And teaching can be taught. Given that department chairs have first and continued contact with faculty, chairs must be trained to promote improvement of instruction. This article will help department chairs to become even more effective front line faculty developers by:

1) exploring ways they can constructively critique colleagues' classroom communications, and
2) providing a tested, pragmatic process for training colleagues to become perceptive observers of each other's teaching.

This experiential process is readily transferable to any institution.

Training department chairs, administrators, and faculty members to be observers of teaching in no way detracts from the mission of a centrally located faculty development program. On the contrary, it enhances that mission.

Peer Observation and Peer Evaluation: Formative and Summative Evaluation

The first thing department chairs need to realize and communicate to faculty who become involved in peer observation training groups is that there is a significant difference between peer observation and peer evaluation. Using colleagues to critique peers' classroom performance for evaluative purposes is unfair without adequate training and systematic practice. In *College Teaching and Learning: Preparing for New Commitments* (1988), Peter Seldin clearly delineates the difference between evaluating and observing peers. Reading Seldin's article is a first assignment in the peer observation training process.

In addition to being aware of the dramatic difference between peer observation and peer evaluation, chairs must recognize and discuss with faculty the difference between formative and summative evaluation. In essence, formative evaluation leads to the development of self-awareness, growth, and change. An excellent formative instrument is Teaching Analysis by Students (TABS), which originated at the University of Massachusetts at Amherst's Clinic to Improve University Teaching (1974). In contrast, summative evaluations are used for the purposes of determining promotion, tenure, and merit increases. Such instruments "grade" the instructor. To reiterate, in the process of training faculty to become peer observers, the first step is to openly discuss the difference between peer observation and peer evaluation and between formative and summative evaluation.

Anxieties of Both Tenured and Untenured Faculty Working Together

Another crucial issue to be discussed in the initial phase of peer observation training is the risk faculty members take in revealing themselves in

the classroom to colleagues. Tenured and untenured faculty members pedagogically exposing themselves to each other is a major source of anxiety. One way to reduce this anxiety is to have those involved in peer observation training divide into two groups and jot down what their concerns would be in their assigned role. For example, those whose last names begin with A-M could be assigned the role of tenured faculty, and those whose last names begin with N-Z could assume the role of untenured faculty. This discovery writing exercise, which takes fewer than five minutes, yields a fertile base for discussion.

At the University of Minnesota-Duluth, we have found that those who play the part of untenured faculty say they feel threatened: They worry about whether they will ever receive tenure if they risk revealing themselves in front of those who will determine their fate in academe; they fear colleagues may not appreciate or approve of their individual style; they worry students might think something is amiss and that they are under investigation; and they fear their academic freedom might be infringed upon.

Concerns of those who play the part of tenured faculty might be scripted as follows: "Judge me? Absurd!" "How could a person from another area of study know my specialized content?" "Don't I have the right to run my classroom the way I want to? What has happened to academic freedom?" "'Who is right and who is wrong?' Style is but personality." "Who else knows enough about my field to know whether I've kept my research current?" "Am I to be assessed as a stereotypic representative of the graying professoriate by one of these freshly minted PhDs?"

Questions raised by both tenured and untenured faculty include: "Where are the results going?" "How representative of my teaching can a class or two be?" "How will my pay be affected?" "How can you assure confidentiality?"

Trainers must bring all these legitimate reservations into the open. Unless these issues are aired, fears about peer observation are like the elephant in the middle of the living room: everyone knows it is there, but no one speaks about it. Establishing trust occurs much more readily in a group if the issue of tenured or untenured faculty critiquing each other is aired.

Random Versus Focused Observation and Descriptive Versus Judgmental Observation

The third step in training faculty in peer observation is to help them discover experientially the difference between random and focused observation, and descriptive and judgmental observation. Employing a 3-5 minute

video clip of ineffective teaching, such as the vignette "Presentation Styles" from the University of Delaware's *Inside Teaching: Exploring Teaching Styles* (1990), department chairs acting as facilitators can ask colleagues to view and then constructively critique teaching performance. Posing the following questions is helpful: What could an observer tell the instructor to enable her to see herself as students do? What would help promote behavioral change? After viewing the clip, untrained observers in groups we have taken through this process have quickly responded: "Dull," "Boring," "Unprepared," "Unexciting," "No direction," "No interaction," "Insulting to students," "Fidgety," and "Obviously, the person is depressed."

Once these comments are jotted on a flip chart or overhead for the group, the facilitator should ask observers to categorize comments as judgmental or descriptive. Quite likely the group will be embarrassed by how judgmental its comments are. We have found the more, "But, what I mean is ..." statements that are made, the clearer it is that the list of comments generated by the group could not change behavior in the classroom.

Judgmental comments do not lead to self-awareness but rather to defensiveness. Observers need guided practice in changing judgmental comments into descriptive statements. Just as a tennis player who is told she has a poor serve would not know what to do to change that unfortunate state of affairs, an instructor who was told she is boring would not be helped to modify her delivery unless specific behaviors are described. To illustrate, the tennis player needs to know that she should move her hand 1/2 inch clockwise on the grip just as the instructor could profit by knowing that she should vary her volume, pitch, intonation, pacing, and not repeat herself unnecessarily.

In the second viewing of the same video clip, the facilitator requests observers to take descriptive notes on a *focused* aspect of the instructor's delivery. At a 1991 Bush Foundation Regional Faculty Development Conference, observers (department chairs, administrators, and faculty development consultants) were asked to look only at nonverbal behavior in the second viewing of "Presentation Styles." They described what they saw as, "She droops over the podium." "She doesn't smile." "She gestures limply." "She stares off into space." We pointed out that this descriptive, focused information would enable the instructor to see herself as the students see her and, consequently, to stand tall, to smile occasionally, to gesture more emphatically, and to make eye contact. Specific changes in behavior are achieved by generating focused, descriptive statements, not random, judgmental accusations.

Underlying Value Systems That Propel Instruction

The next stage in this process is to discover the underlying value systems that propel instruction. Employing Hilsen's "Teaching Values Clarification Exercise" (see Appendix A) aids faculty in getting a clearer picture of what they prize in their own teaching. Many of them have never before committed their instructional values to paper. But of equal importance is that faculty members who may have had offices next to each other for many years and who may have never talked about their teaching philosophies with one another can discover the similarities and differences in their educational value systems within a systematic framework. This truly takes teaching out of the closet. The "Teaching Values Clarification Exercise" may look as if it can be completed by a department in one hour's time, but it releases so much pent up dedication, caring, and concern that if a facilitator has the luxury of time, discussion (depending on department size) could easily ensue for as much as four hours while instructors compare and contrast their philosophies. Revealing underlying value systems of instruction helps to establish even greater trust among department members which, in turn, facilitates the peer observation process.

Factors That Contribute to Effective and Not-so-effective Teaching

Once instructors acknowledge their own teaching philosophies, they need to share a common pedagogical vocabulary to discuss factors that contribute to effective teaching and less-effective teaching. An evocative experience to elicit this educational exchange is "The Visualization Exercise: Classroom Climate" (see Appendix B). Participants examine their own feelings by traveling back in time to conjure up classroom memories that enable them to begin to define the difference between effective and not-so-effective teaching. Through visualization and discovery writing, faculty members we have worked with have described characteristics of a positive classroom climate such as the teacher (personal, available, humorous, non-threatening); the students (stimulated, but not overwhelmed; willing to share ideas, affiliated); the facility (appropriate in size, designed for interaction, agreeably lighted, arranged to produce a feeling of having personal space). Detracting from the learning experience, the teacher has been described as rigid, demeaning, factual pontificator, pet-praiser; the students as constantly

being evaluated, dehumanized, prevented from finding their own voices; and the facility as huge, hot and stuffy, set up for a lecture, and glaringly lit.

Common Teaching Vocabulary

Helling's Danforth Faculty Fellowship Project Report, "Looking for Good Teaching: A Guide to Peer Observation" (1976), is an excellent vehicle to guide discussion about sound andragogy (Knowles, 1984) and to use as a checklist for actual classroom visitations. Helling explores teaching through presentation, involvement, and questioning. After working through the visualization exercise and the checklist, colleagues share a mutual vocabulary and can communicate about teaching.

Observation Through Videotape and Microteaching Process

The next high hurdle is establishing enough trust to enable colleagues to present teaching demonstrations for one another—that is, to microteach. Although there are many ways to do microteaching, for our purposes we define microteaching as presenting 10-20 minutes of content-specific material to observers, a microcosmic version of a real class session. We prefer using a 10-20 minute teaching segment over a shorter one because faculty have less difficulty narrowing material and a better opportunity to demonstrate their teaching styles. As the teacher presents, others take notes on the content and the process used. The colleagues are playing dual roles of students and observers simultaneously. As the students, they respond appropriately, and as observers, they take notes on the teaching process. A feedback session follows. As Menges points out in "Colleagues as Catalysts for Change in Teaching" (1989), faculty can effectively assist each other in improvement of teaching. We have found that practice in giving feedback is an essential aspect of this training.

The thought of microteaching may create anxiety even in the most polished professionals—let alone teaching novices. To ease them into the microteaching process, faculty members can hone their observation skills by viewing video clips of teachers, preferably ones they do not know. Eliminating the interpersonal emotional baggage in the initial phases of observation training makes the process more palatable to even the most reluctant participants.

For example, in a recent workshop on this topic, participants were asked to view a video clip of a class being taught in a question-and-answer format.

As they viewed the clip, they were asked to take notes, focusing on the classroom climate. Their comments were to include descriptive, concrete, and objective evidence mirroring what the students were seeing. Participants were given a minute after the video's completion to process what they saw and organize their comments to give feedback to the teacher being observed on tape. They were then divided into pairs—one performing as the observer and the other role playing the teacher—and asked to talk for five minutes.

After they had experienced giving and receiving feedback, they discussed how those playing the teachers felt receiving feedback and how those acting as observers felt giving feedback. Both groups confessed to some psychological discomfort in this delicate transaction. Even when role playing, the personal/emotional issues surfaced and made individuals realize what an "eggshell" business this process is. A typical statement from the feedback giver was, "Although I knew I was not talking to the person who really did the teaching, I still found it difficult to put criticisms into words." Feedback recipients found that even though they were not the actual teacher in question, they became defensive. These reactions only confirm how crucial it is to establish trust.

After participants have gone through a series of role playing with video vignettes, giving and receiving constructive criticism becomes easier. Indeed, guided practice—after instruction—makes perfect. Not just anyone, no matter the rank or the longevity in teaching, can give effective feedback. Training is needed by most to enable them to give effective feedback, feedback that can elicit change.

The transition into microteaching evolves naturally once participants have been guided through a series of confidence- and skill-building exercises. No longer do they have the safety valve of talking about teachers who are not in the room. Now they are going to talk to each other about each other. Each department member will teach a short lesson to colleagues which they will critique from the viewpoint of both students and faculty. The steps of the microteaching process we employ are outlined below.

Microteaching Process

1. Physical set-up: e.g., write topic on board, arrange chairs, fix overhead, open windows, turn on lights.

2. Each presenter explains:
   —What part of course this is (which "piece of the pie").
   —The purpose, the goals, and expectations of the lesson.
   —Who the audience is.

3. The presenter teaches while all others take notes on the presentation and teaching strategies being used. Viewers playing the dual roles of students and observers:
   —Jot down any unanswered questions or points that need clarifying.
   —Point out strengths and weaknesses.
   —Comment on such things as delivery, organization, and class participation, possibly using Helling's checklist.

4. Oral critique:
   a. Facilitator asks observers:
      —Did the presenter explain how this segment fits into the construction of the course?
      —Did the teacher accomplish his/her purpose, goals, expectations?
      —Was the lesson appropriate for the intended audience?
   b. Everyone comments on:
      —Delivery: e.g., eye contact, voice level, mannerisms.
      —Organization (Intro, Body, Conclusion).
      —Quality of interaction with audience.
      —Questioning skill.
      —Timing/pacing.
      —Use of concrete examples with which students can identify.
      —Potential for more interactive techniques (questioning, group activity, design of a manipulative activity).
      —Whether students were encouraged to think critically.

5. The microteacher comments on how s/he felt:
   a. Doing the presentation:
      —Anxiety level.
      —Whether or not s/he felt communication, understanding was occurring.
      —Whether or not s/he could "read" the students' verbal and nonverbal reactions.
   b. Receiving comments/constructive criticisms from colleagues.

6. Additional comments from all.

7. Summary by facilitator.

It is important that each teacher follow the same basic outline. When the microteaching process is initially introduced to faculty, time must be allowed

for questioning. All must have an equal understanding of and equal time for completing the process. The following is a list of some disaster-avoidance advice that should help initiates to steer clear of quicksand situations:

- *Set rigid time limits.*

  As Maddy states in "Micro Teaching in a Peer Observation Group: A Tenured Perspective" (1990), "Content oriented, we all wanted to 'teach' our peers for more than fifteen to twenty minutes." The facilitator must be a conscientious timekeeper.

- *Emphasize process (the method, not the subject).*
- *Limit discussion of content.*

  This is not to say that all discussion of content should be eliminated. Content discussions can be a true community builder. Individuals begin to realize they have areas of interest and expertise of which they were not aware. A dash of content discussion goes a long way as a catalyst to conversations outside of the microteaching setting. Just as the "Teaching Values Clarification Exercise" contributes to team building, so, too, does a soupçon of content conversation in the midst of microteaching feedback. Arguing the pros and cons of this theorem over that hypothesis is not the objective here. The object is to talk to each other about teaching strategies, delivery techniques, classroom style—the teaching process.

- *Cover both the positive and the negative.*

  Participants have to be coaxed into dealing with the difficult. Yes, accentuate the positive, but do not neglect the negative.

- *Expect going through even one round of microteaching in an average-sized department to be a lengthy process.*

  Optimally, two rounds are recommended. The presentation of one lesson and the feedback session easily consume an hour of difficult-to-schedule time. Departments undertaking this task must address the scheduling issue BEFORE the process ever begins. A department chair who has the foresight to schedule a common free time for department members will find the process quite convenient to facilitate.

- *Allow members to determine the order of presentation—e.g., who will go first, second.*
- *Designate who is responsible for what arrangements.*

> The facilitator must assume responsibility for such matters as meeting place, time scheduling, reordering for illness, and notifying participants of the next session. Participants must provide their own teaching equipment and materials and pick a site appropriate to their teaching style. However, it is their job to notify the facilitator of that choice so their colleagues will be in the right place at the right time.

Facilitators should know that sometimes members drop out or temporarily opt out at this stage. For some, the imagined risk of teaching in front of their colleagues is so great they cannot psychologically afford the experience at this time. If they watch others microteach, they may regain their courage. Not surprisingly, we have observed that "full membership" is only conferred on those who participate in each step of the process. Others who choose not to microteach may continue to attend, but they are no longer viewed as legitimate members of the club.

When members do fully participate, magical things happen. Maddy (1990) writes, ". . . already I find it much more satisfying than anything else I have tried during my career to upgrade my skills." Others who have been involved in this process have told us: They feel as if they have been initiated; they respond as contributing members of a department; they realize that others have similar areas of interest; they see connections for possible research projects; they value their individual differences and teaching styles; they now have sounding boards for collaboratively cogenerating alternative approaches for presenting material; they are surrounded by sets of willing ears. New faculty have risked, survived, and blossomed; seasoned faculty have risked, maintained, and been revitalized. Not only has instructional development occurred, but so, too, have professional and personal growth.

Classroom Observation Triads

By the time faculty have completed two rounds of microteaching, they are eager to have colleagues constructively critique their classroom performance. They do not want to deal with pretend students any more. They want their now-trusted peers to tell them what they cannot see for themselves—to capture the image projected to students and mirror it without the distortion they initially feared. Beginning with Sweeney and Grasha's "Improving Teaching through Faculty Triads" model (1979), Hilsen and Rutherford developed a matrix, "Observation Triads Behavior Chart," which follows.

Observation Triads: Behavior Chart

OBSERVATION TRIADS: BEHAVIOR CHART

ROLES IN THE PROCESS	INTERVIEW	CLASSROOM OBSERVATION	FEEDBACK SESSION
FACILITATOR	1. Review steps of process. 2. Establish rapport as triad: how does each participant feel about the process and role s/he is playing. 3. Make certain all observer duties are performed. 4. Prompt observer to cover "unasked" questions. 5. Determine ground rules for documentation of process, if any.	1. Play identical role as observer in as unobtrusive manner as possible. (Steps 1-7 below.) 2. Be certain to take copious notes. 3. Do not participate in the class. 4. After class, schedule feedback session as soon as possible in a "neutral" location, not the facilitator's office. 5. Be positive, non threatening, and interested!	1. Take adequate processing time to prepare for presentation of feedback. 2. Prioritize areas to be discussed given tolerance levels of teacher and observer. 3. Prepare a written checklist to cross off areas discussed. 4. Observe feedback session only curtailing when "egg shell" areas surface. 5. At end of feedback session solicit comments observer has missed. 6. Be a communication helper. 7. Give feedback to observer. 8. Provide summary of process. 9. Make certain closure takes place.
OBSERVER	1. Describe course. 2. Relate background of students. 3. Explore objectives of teacher for given class period (espoused goals). 4. Establish ground rules for behavior of observer and facilitator in class. WHAT? concern WHY? rationale HOW? strategies, techniques, format 5. Take notes on all teacher comments. 6. Determine areas on which the teacher particularly wants feedback.	1. Get to class early and observe student and teacher entrances to determine relationship. 2. Take notes on process (organization, techniques, format, delivery, etc.). 3. Quantify as much as possible: - Record communication patterns. - Count # of student questions, responses, input. - Calculate WAIT time 1 and 2. 4. Read facial expressions and body language of teacher and students. 5. Note classroom environment, physical setting, and atmosphere. 6. Watch class disperse. 7. Give brief positive reinforcement to teacher after class.	1. Perform facilitator Steps 1-3. 2. Control the session. 3. Ask teacher for self critique of how class session went. 4. Begin with positive comments. 5. Use concrete examples and visuals when appropriate. 6. Reinforce good teaching behaviors. 7. Ask teacher for alternative approaches and "co generate" them with the teacher using prioritized list as guide. 8. Stress shared generation of alternatives. 9. Validate responses of teacher. LISTEN and paraphrase teacher input. 10. Summarize positive, negative, and "co generated" alternatives. 11. Thank teacher for opportunity to learn.
TEACHER	1. Answer observer questions. 2. Share syllabus, text, plan for class session. 3. Explain what students will leave class session "knowing." 4. Explain what will cause the students to attend the next class session. 5. Describe role students play in your teaching, what is your concept of your students as learners."	1. Teach. 2. Consciously attempt to disregard presence of observer and facilitator to avoid interference in established relationship with students. 3. Predetermine whether or not you will explain the presence of the observer and facilitator to your class. 4. Provide materials, texts, etc. for the observer and facilitator.	1. Be receptive. 2. Self analyze class sessions before feedback sessions. 3. Prepare list of questions and areas of specific interest to you. 4. Describe how you felt with the observer and facilitator in your classroom. 5. Ask for concrete validation. 6. Be willing to clarify rationale for employing particular strategies. 7. Be willing to ask for suggestions for alternative approaches. 8. Request input from the observer and the facilitator. 9. Thank observer and facilitator for the input and the time spent.

Hilsen, Rutherford © 1991 chart1 w91

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The first step in moving from microteaching to viewing colleagues' classrooms is to organize people into triads: the facilitator (the department head), the observer (colleague), and the teacher (colleague). They interact in three different settings: the interview, the classroom observation, and the feedback session. By locating the intersection of the role and the stage of the process on the "Observation Triads: Behavior Chart," an individual can see what behaviors make the process run smoothly at a given stage. Simply, the chart tells who does what when.

To establish observation triads, the facilitator (department chair) may pair colleagues. If the department climate is healthy, participants may be involved in selecting partners. However, because the chair has had the opportunity to watch relationships evolve as participants have explored their teaching philosophies, developed trust, and microtaught, the facilitator is in an excellent position to assign team members. Relying on insight, the facilitator needs to integrate budding affiliations to germinate the seeds of networking that have been sown. The furrows between tenured and untenured faculty can be ignored. As a matter of fact, mixing stock is encouraged because permanent mentoring relationships can be propagated in this mix as can perennial friendships. Once the pairs have been established, the facilitator begins to act as a landscaper of scheduling.

A caveat: Scheduling is not a simple matter. It is a jungle of tangled vines through which cutting a clear path is laborious and which requires fortitude and vigilance on the part of the facilitator. Excuses sprout like tropical undergrowth impeding progress toward the destination—arriving at a neatly plotted matrix schedule. Committee assignments, childcare responsibilities, teaching classes, union negotiations, staff meetings, hockey practice, nail appointments, search committees, writing articles, and letters of reference—all block efforts to schedule in a timely fashion. Facilitators must be reminded that given the appropriate amount of persistence, the process will begin.

Once upon a time when the authors initially began working with observation triads, they foolishly believed the interview phase for both faculty members' classroom observations could be completed simultaneously in one meeting. It is imperative that the reader realize that both colleagues' classroom performances will eventually be viewed by the other faculty member; the observer will become the teacher, and the teacher will become the observer to sequence a round in the process. Obviously, the facilitator plays the same role throughout.

The easiest way to facilitate rapid progress through the process is to work through the three steps of the first segment of a round (interview, classroom observation, and feedback session). Then have the observer and faculty

member switch roles, repeating the interview, classroom observation, and feedback session stages. What appears to be more work is actually less in the long run. The interview needs to occur after the last class has been taught and before the class to be observed is taught. If, for example, the class is a Tuesday/Thursday class, the interview might be held on a Wednesday before the Thursday class or on Friday or Monday before the Tuesday class.

By using the "Observation Triads: Behavior Chart" as a checklist, each member of the triad will be able to perform the expected behavior to ensure the successful completion of a round.

How many rounds need to be done before the process is completed? The answer to this question depends on a number of factors: How much time can participants give and still maintain their professional presence? How committed are both the department chair and the faculty members to the improvement of teaching? How much of a catalyst to change has this process been to participants? How concerned are faculty with developing teaching skills in comparison to evaluating colleagues' performances? Is there another service available on campus that would allow faculty to more intensely investigate their own teaching? Are there other ways in which faculty can interact in productive relationships? (e.g., Should they write about their experiences, and/or should they get involved in classroom research?) The process is a springboard to many activities, all of which contribute to raising the status of teaching and teachers on university campuses.

Conclusions

The ultimate answer to how long the process continues depends on whether the potential benefits are realized for the faculty: increased awareness of self in the classroom; greater understanding of students; improved ability to read student reaction, to know when further explanation is needed; introduction to alternative teaching styles and strategies; increased networking and friendships among department members; sharing of similar goals while respecting philosophical differences. The following statements are testimonials to the fact that faculty do reap benefits in this process.

> During the peer observation, I felt the strongest and most confident. I was on familiar ground in the classroom with real students and little doubt remained concerning the trust which I had invested in my associates.
> In the end, I was elated to find that, what began as a test by fire, became an opportunity for affirmation and growth. Through this experience, I affirmed my own competence and uniqueness at teaching. I found that areas which I perceived as weaknesses had become sources of growth and change. Finally, the trust and respect between my colleagues and me rose to a level

> which it otherwise may not have attained had we not endured these events together.
>
> "An Untenured Perspective" (1990)

> An aspect of this process that fascinates me is the growing appreciation for how competent we all are as teachers and yet how different our teaching styles are . . . .
> Learning how to observe our peers and to offer constructive critiques of their teaching has brought our group closer both professionally and personally. It is good to get together once a week in a less formal setting than our traditional department meetings. We are much more relaxed with one another than when we began this process. For me the most beneficial part of the experience to date has been sharing our philosophies of teaching and the techniques we find helpful. I will be trying some new strategies in my classroom now that I have seen them demonstrated.
>
> "A Tenured Perspective" (1990)

Chairs maximize their role as front line faculty developers by being viewed as collaborators in the teaching process, not critics of it. As if the sorcerer's wand were waved across the department, taking committee assignments, accepting responsibility for chairing searches, being the department representative to the faculty assembly, and a host of other "Please, can't you?" jobs are much more likely to be filled by volunteers. Morale improves; internal strife diminishes. Departments that were sick can become collaboratively healthy. Department chairs are now coaching a team. Although Menges (1987) states status differential can have a negative effect on institutional review processes, we have found that working through this peer observation process does, indeed, enable the department chair to be a member of the teaching improvement community. Furthermore, chairs will feel more capable of filling their leadership role because of their knowledge and understanding of their department members. The chair can maximize departmental potential by treating faculty in a humane manner. Yes, a department benefits.

The authors chose to use department structure as a means of explaining how this system functions. As illustrated in Hilsen's "Maximizing Consultant Time by Utilizing Group Consultation" (1990), the reality is that an institution, with the help of a consultant, can be broken down into any kind of manageable unit, and the process will still work. For example, at the University of Minnesota-Duluth next year, a consultant with the Instructional Development Service will act as facilitator for a group of interdisciplinary faculty within a college. Any structure will work as long as the steps outlined

and the roles delineated are followed. To reiterate, the agenda for training in peer observation is as follows:

Agenda for Peer Observation Training Groups

Hilsen (1991)

1. Overview the entire process.
2. Discuss the difference between peer observation and peer evaluation, and formative and summative evaluation.
3. Openly discuss the anxieties of both tenured and untenured faculty working together to improve teaching.
4. Use video to get participants to see the difference between random and focused observation, and descriptive and judgmental observation.
5. Discover the underlying value systems that propel instruction by utilizing the "Teaching Values Clarification Exercise."
6. Use the "Visualization Exercise: Classroom Climate" to discuss common factors which contribute to good and not-so-effective teaching.
7. Use Helling's "Looking for Good Teaching: A Guide to Peer Observation" to establish a shared teaching vocabulary.
8. Train participants how to observe through videotapes and the micro-teaching process, completing as many rounds of micro-teaching as needed to help participants feel comfortable.
9. Set up observation triads and begin classroom observations.
10. Repeat the process or move on to new ventures, reaping the benefits of participation.

Department chairs, administrators, or consultants can be effective front line faculty developers by learning to constructively critique colleagues in the classroom. Community building occurs as faculty proceed through the peer observation process. With the concentration on improvement of instruction as opposed to evaluation, the status of teaching on campus rises. Emphasis shifts from evaluation to improvement, from competition to collaboration, from a random pattern to a systematized model.

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Appendix A
Teaching Values Clarification Exercise

AIGNER FORM NO. 84016
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NAME	A Most Important	B Second Most Important	C Third Most Important	D Fourth Most Important	E Fifth Most Important	

DIRECTIONS:
Out of the 20 teaching behaviors listed on side one of TABS Form B (Teaching Analysis by Students), pick the 5 items you consider to be most important for effective teaching in your classroom. Enter your name on line one. Rank the 5 items you have chosen in order of importance.
(A = most important, B = second most important, C = third, D = fourth, E = fifth).

TABS
Form B*

Section I: This section includes statements describing a variety of teaching skills. Please read each statement carefully and decide the extent to which you feel your instructor does not or does need improvement. Respond to each statement by selecting one of the following:

A. No improvement needed (very good or excellent performance)
B. Little improvement needed (generally good performance)

C. Improvement needed (generally mediocre performance)
D. Considerable improvement needed (generally poor performance)

E. Not a necessary skill for this course

Please make your decisions about the need for improvement on the basis of what you think would be best for this particular course and your personal learning style. Rather than let your overall feelings for the instructor determine all of your responses, try to consider each statement separately.

THE INSTRUCTOR'S PERFORMANCE IN ...

1. making effective use of class time
2. making clear the purposes of each class session and learning activity
3. integrating the various topics treated in the course
4. making clear the distinction between major and minor topics
5. adjusting the rate at which ideas are covered so that I can follow and understand them
6. clarifying material which needs explanation
7. wrapping things up before moving on to a new topic
8. assigning useful readings and homework
9. maintaining an atmosphere which actively encourages learning
10. responding to questions raised by students
11. inspiring excitement or interest in the content of the course
12. using a variety of teaching techniques
13. taking appropriate action if students appear to be bored
14. asking thought-provoking questions
15. getting students to participate in class discussions or activities
16. relating to students in ways which promote mutual respect
17. explaining what is expected from each student
18. making clear precisely how my performance is to be evaluated
19. designing evaluation procedures which are consistent with course goals
20. keeping me informed about how well I am doing

(Over)

(Page one of three. Only one page included.)

*Adapted from the Teaching Analysis by Students (TABS) of the Clinic to Improve University Teaching, University of Massachusetts at Amherst (1974). Use of TABS B is granted to the University of Nebraska-Lincoln Teaching and Learning Center by Glenn Erickson, Director, Instructional Development Program, University of Rhode Island, Kingston, Rhode Island. (Minor modifications of TABS B made by Joyce Povlacs, Instructional Consultant, UNL Teaching and Learning Center.) For information regarding the use of TABS B, call 472-3079.

Appendix B

VISUALIZATION EXERCISE: Classroom Climate

Linda Hilsen, University of Minnesota-Duluth

Think back over all the classrooms you have been in as a student or as an observer. In some, you felt very comfortable; in others, the atmosphere was not relaxed, and often you wished the hour would get over. This exercise will help you discover what contributes to and detracts from an effective learning environment.

Time		
2 minutes	1.	Think about the elements in each situation described above which caused you to feel the way you did. Close your eyes and put yourself in those actual classrooms. Visualize your favorite teacher. Why did you feel comfortable in that class? Conjure up a classroom you disliked. Why did you feel uncomfortable in that classroom?
4 minutes	2.	Jot down reasons why you felt comfortable or uncomfortable in a given classroom. Try to generate six reasons for each.

Comfortable	Uncomfortable

1 minute	3.	You will be assigned to a small group.
4 minutes	4.	Share your lists with the members of your small group to create a master list which includes ideas which are acceptable to all group members. Pick a recorder who writes legibly. The recorder will write your group's ideas on the transparency provided.
1 minute	5.	Through consensus, determine who will act as the reporter to disseminate your transparency list to the large group.
6 minutes	6.	Group reporters report to the large group.
2 minutes	7.	Debriefing: close your eyes and visualize changes you will make in your own classroom because of this discussion.
2 minutes	8.	With a person near you, share one change you intend to make or one idea you might like to try out in your next class.

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The Professor as Active Learner: Lessons from the New Jersey Master Faculty Program

Myrna J. Smith
Mark LaCelle-Peterson

New Jersey Institute for Collegiate Teaching and Learning*

The New Jersey Master Faculty Program, developed over the decade of the 1980s by the late Joseph Katz, is a simple yet comprehensive faculty development program that has, since 1988, engaged over 300 New Jersey faculty members at 21 public and private institutions (including two-year, four-year, and graduate campuses) in innovation and reflection on teaching and learning. While the Program is nominally three years old, it builds on a decade of innovation and research by Joseph Katz, Mildred Henry, and others on fifteen campuses across the country. The fruit of these efforts is an approach to faculty development that engages the intellectual and emotional energies of faculty from a wide range of academic disciplines in improving their teaching.

The Program promotes faculty collaboration through classroom observation, student interviews, and collegial reflection. Steve Golin, former Program Director, notes four strengths of the Master Faculty Program: it is ongoing, faculty-owned, decentralized, and transforming for faculty (1990). A fifth strength is its flexibility, which makes the Program "travel well"—so well, in fact, that single campuses and consortia of institutions in at least five

*The New Jersey Institute for Collegiate Teaching and Learning, which is funded by the New Jersey Department of Higher Education and housed at Seton Hall University, South Orange, New Jersey, provides faculty development programs to all of the state's 56 college and university campuses.

states have adopted versions of the Program. This article outlines the basic Program components, briefly describes its history in New Jersey, summarizes the characteristics of particularly successful campus versions of the Program, and looks at the outcomes of those Programs.

Program Objectives and Components

Breaking Down the Walls Around Teaching

Although teaching is the main business of most faculty in higher education, it is often the least "collegial" part of their work: teaching tends to be isolated. Each component of the Master Faculty Program breaks down that isolation. In fact, the whole logic of the Program revolves around this concern. In contrast to many other faculty development approaches that try to get faculty to attend to what "experts" have to say about teaching (valuable though such information might be), the Master Faculty Program encourages faculty to attend to their *own* students, their *own* teaching practice, and the learning outcomes in their *own* classrooms. Participants reflect on their teaching together with a faculty colleague and with students. There are four essential components to the Program.

Classroom Observation

The faculty pair is the basic unit of the Program. Two faculty members agree to pair up for a period of time, ideally a year. For a semester, quarter, or a given number of weeks, one partner observes a class taught by the other; the next semester they switch roles. How often these observations occur depends upon the pair. For intense work, observations might occur every week for ten weeks; the important thing is to observe often enough to become knowledgeable about the class, its content, the students, the papers, the testing, the teacher. Katz and Henry recommend in *Turning Professors into Teachers* (1988) that members in a pair be from different disciplines so that the observations and discussions can focus on the teaching and student learning, rather than on the content of the material.

Student Interviews

Secondly, each of the "buddies" interviews two or three students from the observed class. Students are selected in a variety of ways: some faculty ask for volunteers; others look for diversity in age, race, and gender; still others look for diversity in classroom performance. (Katz and Henry recommend selecting students with a range of learning styles based on results of a learning style inventory [1988, pp. 11-12].) The student interviews, like the

faculty observations, occur regularly over time, usually lasting from 30 minutes to an hour. Questions range from the very general to the specific. Initial interviews include questions such as "Why are you enrolled here?" and "How would you rate your overall experience at this institution?"—such questions are good icebreakers. Over the course of the semester, the faculty member and student might discuss very specific questions about how a particular classroom session was received, about the student's personal motivations, or about the student's strategies for reading, note-taking, or reviewing for the particular class.

Collegial Discussion

The third aspect involves the two faculty meeting together to discuss their data—the observations and the student interviews. They do not meet as neophyte-mentor or even evaluatee-evaluator, but rather as two colleagues who have collected data on a small, applied research project: what happens in this class and how does that promote or retard student learning. The pair's collegial discussions also spill over into the monthly campus group meeting of all the pairs currently involved. On some campuses, former participants or other interested faculty attend these meetings as well. Campus meetings might focus on a particular teaching-learning issue or simply serve as an open forum for teaching concerns.

Coordination

Finally, on each campus a campus coordinator (often two co-coordinators) takes care of the logistics of pairing and scheduling campus group meetings. While the classroom observation, student interviews, and collegial discussion are central to the *process* of learning about teaching from the perspective of the participating faculty members, collegial leadership by the campus coordinators is essential to the success of the *Program* as a whole. In addition to handling the logistics and facilitating participation at the campus level, the coordinators also act as the liaison to the state director, who meets with them monthly to learn about the progress of the Program on the campuses, to discuss current educational ideas, and to plan special events of interest to the campuses.

From State Mandate to Grass Roots: Program Evolution in New Jersey

The New Jersey Master Faculty Program began at the top, through the Department of Higher Education (DHE), which extended a grant to the

Woodrow Wilson Fellowship Foundation to support a state-wide program under the direction of Joseph Katz. DHE invited all campuses in the state to participate, and Katz began working with the academic officers who responded. Academic officers selected two campus coordinators, rewarding them with release time from teaching. They in turn recruited faculty pairs to participate. In the first semester, four institutions joined the project, seven joined the next semester, and seven more the third semester.

Though the Program in New Jersey began with a DHE initiative, it functions equally well if it grows from the bottom up. As Golin (1990) points out, "The pairs are largely autonomous. They chart their own directions. They take only what they can use from the campus coordinator or the state-wide director" (p. 10). In fact, one hallmark of the most vital campus programs is their "grass roots" appeal: they have become faculty-owned, self-perpetuating efforts.

Caldwell College in New Jersey provides an example of grass-roots program development. Mary L. Kelly, Assistant Dean for Faculty Development at Caldwell, learned of the Program and began interviewing students as part of a graduate program at Teachers College, Columbia University. As Kelly points out in her article "A Professor Confesses: Developing Trust in Accounting I" (1989), "I used to think a well-prepared lecture, great transparencies, and quality handouts assured learning . . . . Since reading Katz and Henry, I wonder if a lecture ever did more than cover the material" (p. 67).

Based on her own experience, Kelly organized a few pairs on her own campus and began having monthly meetings. Caldwell College is in New Jersey and did join that state-wide structure; however, their Program started independently from it and could have survived without it. What it did have was one committed person who was willing to organize the Program on campus.

At least fourteen colleges in five other states—Connecticut, Kansas, Missouri, New York, and Pennsylvania—have adopted some version of the Program. The Program was transported to the Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education, a consortium of 19 colleges and universities. Steve Golin outlined the Program to representatives from the participating institutions. Additional campuses are experimenting with the Program as a result of the exposure of faculty leaders enrolled as doctoral students in the program in College Teaching and Academic Leadership at Teachers College, Columbia University (where a semester's participation in the colleague pairing and interviewing components of the Program were requirements for the course in College Teaching and Learning in 1988-89).

Successful Campus Programs

Campuses that have developed successful programs (i.e., those that keep growing and involve faculty members in significant teaching engagement) share three main characteristics: (1) a respected and enthusiastic campus coordinator, (2) a supportive administration, and (3) a campus culture that supports pedagogical inquiry.

The Crucial Campus Coordinator

Faculty who have been selected or have volunteered to coordinate the Program on a campus generally value teaching and are usually recognized as good teachers. These qualities, while necessary, are not sufficient in themselves. As one experienced coordinator put it, coordinators must also have the qualities of a "ward politician" in order to recruit and encourage faculty in the first weeks of observing and interviewing. One of the coordinators at Seton Hall University, who received a teaching award in 1990, spoke of her vigilant efforts to recruit new participants, to remind them of the campus meeting, to ask them how their observations and interviews were going.

In contrast, at another college the Program collapsed because the coordinator, although a respected teacher, felt uncomfortable doing the recruiting. He would willingly send out notices, but did not make the extra *personal* appeals for participation. As in fund raising for a favorite cause, one must actively recruit to persuade people to sample the Program.

Administrative Support

Administrative support comes in two forms: money and morale. At some campuses in New Jersey, coordinators are given some released time from teaching, either a course each semester or one course each academic year. On three campuses, participants are paid two or three hundred dollars per semester. On one campus, all participants are given money for research.

Even though money is a measurable form of support and recognition, promotion of the Program by top administrators is often even more important. (It is also more likely to *continue* even in hard economic times, unlike monetary support.) One community college president, who was well-informed about the Program, noted in his address to the faculty that he would be pleased if every department had at least one member participating in this Program. Department chairs, just at the suggestion of the president, felt some obligation at least to discuss the issue of participation with faculty, and

faculty, in turn, knew that the Master Faculty Program was a valued activity, one from which they would probably receive some recognition.

Several New Jersey college and university administrators have publicly praised their local programs. That praise filters back to campuses, once more giving recognition to participants. At one college the dean frequently attended the campus meetings. He came not as an evaluator, but as someone interested in discussing teaching. The personal support of even one administrator can make a crucial difference.

Campus Culture

Although teaching is a valued activity on all campuses, time spent in innovation and reflection on teaching is not always rewarded in the institution. Most of the campuses in New Jersey that have built successful Master Faculty Programs have histories of other faculty development programs. One community college with a successful Master Faculty Program had recently received a grant to support a three-year writing-across-the-curriculum initiative in which 85% of the faculty participated. One university with a successful Program had a grant for a task force on teaching, and had set up a tri-campus teaching center. Although the grant-funded teaching center was not long lived, the university showed its commitment to teaching in setting up its own center just as it joined the state-wide Master Faculty Program.

While most of the campuses where programs have flourished have a history of faculty development efforts, at least one remarkably successful Program developed on a campus with no such history. On that campus, the faculty and at least one administrator were very open to pedagogical inquiry.

Fruits of a Successful Program: Transformed Teaching

Evidence that the New Jersey Master Faculty Program is working comes from two sources. First, the Program was formally evaluated by R. Eugene Rice and Sandra I. Cheldelin (1989) in a report entitled "The Knower and the Known: Making the Connection." In addition, a selection of the 254 essays written by faculty who participated during the first three years of the project was published in *Essays by Coordinators and Participants in the New Jersey Master Faculty Program: Perspectives for Exploring the Ways in Which Faculty and Students Think and Learn*, edited by Patricia Morrissey (1990). Each of these sources documents the Program's effectiveness.

Rice and Cheldelin, who observed all aspects of the Program, read participant essays, conducted a survey, and interviewed students, partici-

pants, and coordinators, concluded that the Program had significant impact on faculty learning. "Although we were unable to quantitatively document what faculty have learned, we found extensive qualitative evidence in the faculty interviews, their essays, from observations i.. coordinator meetings, and the survey" (Rice & Cheldelin, 1989, p. 21). They found that faculty had

1. developed greater awareness of differences in students' levels of preparation and developmental stages;
2. broadened their repertoire of teaching techniques and become more purposeful in employing them; and
3. found new enthusiasm for the practice of teaching.

Katz and Henry (1988) note that, "[p]erhaps the most important result induced by our approach is an impetus to help students to move from being *passive* to being *active*" (p. 16). Faculty essays confirm that as faculty become more actively involved in their teaching, students are encouraged to become more active in their learning. Susan Crane of the Rutgers (New Brunswick) English Department writes about the problem of student passivity, particularly in large lecture classes. Although she provides no solutions to the problem, she notes, ". . . a professor might help students break out of their passivity, showing them where it could hamper their development" (Morrissey, 1990, p. 53).

Joan Capps of Raritan Valley Community College, at the suggestion of her observer, Stan Kopit, a teacher of theater, confronted student passivity directly by requiring students to solve a trigonometric identity in small groups. "The success of the team effort was amazing since I had mistakenly convinced myself that I was indispensable as a 'performer!' Not only was the solution that the team worked on presented, but many 'individualists' decided to do the problem in a different way" (Morrissey, 1990, p. 55).

In essay after essay professors from all types of schools write about involving students more. Jean Warner of Rider College, who had relied almost exclusively on lecturing, committed herself to a new format: "Next semester I will abandon lecturing the first four weeks. Instead I plan to involve the students actively in their learning by asking them to give oral presentations on topics covered in each chapter. I will also try some case studies and discussion groups" (Morrissey, 1990, p. 98).

Katz and Henry (1988) warn, however, that changes such as those noted above will not happen quickly. In their experience faculty made the most changes in the third semester of observing and interviewing. Rice and Cheldelin (1989) note that the Master Faculty Program multiplies when it is

implemented as part of a more inclusive multi-dimensional approach to faculty development.

Conclusion

A very important lesson emerges from the three years' experience of the New Jersey Master Faculty Program: faculty development efforts can have a very real impact on teaching and learning. As we all know, there are no quick fixes to improve the quality of postsecondary teaching. It is particularly encouraging, therefore, to see the willingness of faculty members on all types of campuses to engage actively and reflectively in a process that over time has been shown to enhance teaching efforts.

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